

A Brief History of Indiana

Indiana Historical Bureau

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A BRIEF HISTORY *of* Indiana

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A BRIEF HISTORY OF INDIANA

I. EUROPEAN COLONY, 1679-1783

"Prehistoric" Indians

Here and there along Indiana rivers are found articles of Indian fabrication which reveal that the first inhabitants of the state were dwelling in the area centuries before the white man appeared. That the earliest Indians perhaps lived mainly on shellfish is indicated by the shell mounds which they left. These Indians apparently used spears for hunting, made beads but not pottery, and lived in caves or flimsy shelters for short periods before moving on in search of more food. Later mounds reveal that other Indians inhabited Indiana over a thousand years ago. They raised much of their food, smoked tobacco, made cloth, nets, sandals, pottery, and ornaments, and buried their dead with care. In southwestern Indiana about four hundred years ago there dwelt agricultural Indians who lived in houses formed of upright posts and cane laths covered with straw and mud with grass roofs. They fortified their villages and made pottery utensils, flint knives, stone hammers, copper ornaments, and bows and arrows.

The Indians just described are known as "prehistoric" Indians. Although this term is somewhat misleading, it is useful in at least two ways. First, the so-called "prehistoric" Indians were here *before* the French arrived in Indiana about the 1650's. There are no *known contacts* between them and the French, English, or Americans. Second, there are no *known contacts* between the "prehistoric" Indians and the Indians whom the French, English, and Americans later met in the Ohio Valley and the Old Northwest. Our knowledge about the "prehistoric" Indians is limited, so that what is said about them is based partly upon conjecture. What we do know about them comes mainly from the work of archaeologists who dig and explore in mounds and village sites for artifacts and other evidence of how and when they lived in Indiana. Fortunately such digging and exploring continue so our knowledge of these first known inhabitants of Indiana is increasing. The work at Angel Mounds, near Evansville, under the direction of the late Glenn A. Black and Eli Lilly, is an example of the efforts made to increase our information about the "prehistoric" Indians.

"Historic" Indians

The Indians whom the French, English, and Americans met and traded with in the Ohio Valley and the Old Northwest are known as the "historic" Indians. This term is also somewhat misleading, yet it helps make clear that these were the Indians whom the French, English, and early Americans found when they arrived in this region. We have *written* records of such contacts, whereas we have no written records regarding the "prehistoric" Indians. These "historic" Indians, however, had no written language before their contact with the whites. Thus nearly all written records about them are by whites rather than by the Indians themselves. Because of these written records we know more about the "historic" than the "prehistoric" Indians. Even so, our knowledge about the "historic" Indians is incomplete.

The Miami and the Potawatomi were the two most important tribes of "historic" Indians whom the French knew in Indiana during the century prior to 1763 (the year they lost the Old Northwest to the English). The Miami came into or perhaps returned to Indiana from the north during the last half of the seventeenth and the early eighteenth centuries. Northeastern Indiana, especially the Upper Wabash and Maumee valleys centering around Fort Wayne, was occupied by them. The Potawatomi entered or perhaps returned to Indiana, also from the north, somewhat later than did the Miami—perhaps mainly during the early decades of the eighteenth century. They settled largely in the central and western parts of northern Indiana, stretching south below the Wabash River in some places. In sections of northern Indiana the Miami and Potawatomi mingled. This mingling is suggested by the fact that the first newspaper in all of northern Indiana was known as the *Potawattimie & Miami Times*. It was founded at Logansport in 1829 when members of both tribes still lived in the vicinity.

Much later than the Miami and the Potawatomi in coming to Indiana were the Delaware who entered from the east, perhaps mainly during the last half of the eighteenth century. They settled principally in the central and eastern parts of central Indiana, especially in the upper reaches of the west fork of White River near where Anderson and Muncie were later founded.

Various other tribes came to Indiana, but the three named were more numerous and more important than such tribes as the Wea, Shawnee, Wyandot, Kickapoo, and Piankashaw. Various tribes were interrelated. In general, the Indians depended upon fishing, hunting,

and the gathering of berries, nuts, and fruits for much of their food. They also raised corn, potatoes, squash, beans, and other crops. Agriculture was important among them.

The French Arrive

The Spanish were the pioneers in the exploration and colonization of the New World, but shortly after its discovery by Columbus in 1492 came the first meager efforts of the English and the French. John Cabot, sailing in the service of England, discovered the Labrador region in 1497 and established England's claim to North America. An early French expedition under Verrazano sailed along the Atlantic Coast in 1524 searching for a passage to the Orient. A decade later Jacques Cartier made the first of three voyages to the St. Lawrence River. He later attempted to establish a colony where Quebec now stands, but without success.

The fur trade with the Indians lured the French into the Great Lakes area and became the economic foundation of New France. Champlain founded Quebec in 1608 and later explored westward to Lake Huron. Trader Joliet and Father Marquette reached the Mississippi and descended it part way in 1673. Fur traders and missionaries fanned out through the country surrounding the Great Lakes. Jesuit missionaries in particular labored amid sacrifice and martyrdom to convert the Indians to Christianity, while traders exchanged the white man's goods with the Indians for furs. Explorer La Salle, the first known white man to enter Indiana, crossed the St. Joseph-Kankakee portage near South Bend in 1679. By 1720 the French had control of the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes region, and the Mississippi River from Illinois to the Gulf of Mexico. Indiana lay within this area, partly in the province of Canada and partly in the province of Louisiana.

French Settlement

The French established three small settlements in Indiana to guard the Maumee-Wabash route connecting Lake Erie with the Ohio River. These were principally places where traders could live, keep their supplies, barter with the Indians, and pack their furs for shipment either to Montreal or New Orleans. Since the French obtained revenue from the fur trade, they wished to protect the waterways. Hence they kept troops at the various outposts. A settlement was established at the portage connecting the Maumee River with the Little Wabash, where Fort Wayne now stands, about 1700. It became known as the Fort of the Miami, or Fort Miami. Another settlement was made among the

Wea, or Ouiatenon, about 1717; and a stockade with blockhouses was built a few miles below the present city of Lafayette. It was called Fort Ouiatenon. Fort Vincennes, established by Francois Marie Bisot, Sieur de Vincennes, about 1732, was the most important French center. Because trade was more easily established with the Illinois settlements and New Orleans, Vincennes was administered as part of the province of Louisiana; the two other outposts were considered a part of Canada.



In exchange for hides and furs, the Indians received gunpowder, muskets, lead bullets, traps, kettles, blankets, knives, shirts, paint, beads, mirrors, jew's harps, and other trinkets. French brandy became an increasing part of this trade, to the detriment of the Indians' health and social life. The traders raised some corn, wheat, tobacco, a few fruits, and vegetables, but did not clear and farm much land. The Indians generally did not object to a few Frenchmen here and there, since small settlements did not deplete or scare off the game which they hunted. Indeed, the traders brought goods which raised the Indian standard of living, and the French government frequently gave presents to keep their friendship. The traders often went among the tribes and did their trading on the hunting grounds. In the spring and summer they transported their furs to Montreal or New Orleans and

procured more trade goods. Traders frequently married Indian maidens and reared half-breed children. Among the French, long evenings were enlivened by dancing, card playing, and sports. The game of lacrosse was learned from the Indians. The military commandant was also the civil ruler. There was no representative government in New France.

French and Indian Wars

France and England were the principal rivals in settling North America. Both countries wanted the furs and other raw materials which America produced, and each struggled to draw the Indians away from the other. The religion of the two powers also differed since the French were Roman Catholic and the English were Protestant. The first colonial war for empire between the mother countries began in 1689; the fourth and last started in 1754. Called the French and Indian War, it ended in 1763 with a decisive English victory. France lost Canada and the remainder of her territory east of the Mississippi to England and gave her land west of the Mississippi to Spain for the latter's unavailing help in the war. Thus Indiana was not settled as a French colony, but was held by the English, then became an American territory. This change meant that English law and government, as well as Protestantism, would prevail. Some of the French inhabitants, never anchored to the land, moved to the west side of the Mississippi. In 1765 George Croghan, an important British official who visited the Indiana posts, found Vincennes to be a village of some eighty or ninety French families, Ouiatenon to have only about fourteen families, and Miami fewer.

Pontiac's War

British occupation of Indiana was neither long nor effective. Troops were sent to occupy Forts Miami and Ouiatenon late in 1760. Vincennes did not have a British commandant until 1777. The Indians of Indiana had generally favored or supported the French in the late war. They disliked the English, especially their reluctance to give presents, their hunger for land, and their superior attitude. Under the leadership of Chief Pontiac, Indians laid siege to Detroit in May, 1763, in the hope of expelling the English from the Northwest. Pontiac dispatched to Fort Miami a savage party which killed the commandant by ruse and captured the post. Indians proceeded down the Wabash to Ouiatenon and seized that fort. Although the Indians obtained possession of various western posts, they failed to capture Detroit. The English soon re-established their authority, but they did

not station troops in Indiana again until 1777 when soldiers were sent to Vincennes.

An English Wilderness

The acquisition of Canada and the Indian situation showed the British government that new policies were needed to deal with the French and Indians of British America. To pacify the Indians, white settlement west of the Appalachian Mountains was forbidden by the royal proclamation of 1763. This decree offended land speculators as well as squatters, and it could not be enforced. Moreover, about half of the original English colonies held charters granting them boundaries from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Virginia in particular claimed the Indiana area. The line of white settlement was moved to the Ohio River as far down as the mouth of the Tennessee in 1768, but the area which became Indiana was still closed to English settlement.

In 1774 the British Parliament passed the Quebec Act, annexing the area north of the Ohio to the province of Quebec in order to establish firm control over settlement and the fur trade. French laws and religion were safeguarded. The resulting dominance of French law and Catholicism was resented by the many English colonists, who had expected to extend their influence westward. The limitation on westward expansion and the Quebec Act were two causes of the American Revolution.

Very few English colonists settled west of the Appalachian Mountains before 1763. Despite the royal proclamation thousands of them did so during the two decades which followed. This early settlement was within the Ohio River Valley, especially its upper reaches in western Pennsylvania and present-day West Virginia. A lesser number of settlers also appeared in the area which became Kentucky and Tennessee. These colonists constituted the first important beachhead of settlers west of the Appalachians. Their efforts *before* 1783 helped prepare the way for permanent settlements in the Old Northwest *after* this date.

Clark and Western Warfare

When the Revolutionary War began, there were no English settlements in Indiana. The meager French population was generally neutral, at least until France allied herself with the United States in 1778.

Early in the war bands of British and Indians raided the Kentucky outposts and the frontier settlements. The frontiersmen were left largely to their own resources for defense. Some fled eastward; others stayed. During this turbulent time George Rogers Clark,

then in his early twenties, achieved political and military prominence in the West as a leader of the resistance to the Indians and in stiffening the morale of the settlers. He helped organize Kentucky as a county of Virginia. From Governor Patrick Henry, Clark secured the promise of both men and materials in order to take the offensive in the West, but he was disappointed in the amount of help received.

In 1778 Clark's expedition descended the Ohio to the mouth of the Tennessee River, then crossed the Illinois prairies. The troops captured Kaskaskia in July without the loss of a single life. Clark's generous, though firm, treatment of the French and the news of the recently concluded French alliance with the United States strengthened his position. Urged by Father Pierre Gibault and Dr. Jean Laffont, the French at Vincennes readily took the oath of loyalty to the Americans. Clark sent an officer and a few soldiers to supervise them.

When the British commandant at Detroit, Col. Henry Hamilton, learned of Clark's success, he collected British and Indian forces to oppose him. Advancing up the Maumee and down the Wabash, he easily regained possession of Vincennes. Winter had already set in, but Clark determined to march against that place. With about 170 men he set out in February, 1779, from Kaskaskia. Cold, snow, mud, high water, exposure, sickness, and lack of food failed to stop these sons of the wilderness. They surprised the British troops, recaptured Vincennes, and sent Hamilton off to Virginia as a prisoner of war.

In 1781 Clark planned an expedition against Detroit. A reinforcement under Col. Archibald Lochry, on its way down the Ohio to join Clark, was ambushed below the present site of Aurora by a band of British and Indians. Lochry and a third of his men were killed, the rest captured. One other skirmish of the Revolution was fought on Indiana soil. A French officer, Col. Augustin de la Balme, anxious to strike the British, enlisted some French inhabitants of Illinois and Vincennes in 1780 and started up the Wabash toward Detroit. The Miami village of Kekionga near Fort Miami and British traders' stores were pillaged. Chief Little Turtle rallied his braves, pursued La Balme, killed him, and dispersed his force.

The Treaty of Paris, 1783, ended the American Revolution. English recognition of American independence was the most important item of this treaty. Also of great importance was the provision that the western boundary of the new United States should be the Mississippi River, from Canada on the north to Florida on the south. Clark's conquest of Kaskaskia and Vincennes probably helped the United States to obtain the Old Northwest. In this treaty the British promised

to remove their troops from various military posts along the Canadian border, such as the one at Detroit; but they failed to carry out this promise. The Indians were not a party to this treaty, and they continued to fight against the Americans. Although the new United States got the title to the Old Northwest in 1783, for the next few decades she was faced with difficult problems in attempting to retain and settle this important region.

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II. TERRITORIAL DAYS, 1783-1816

British Influence

Between 1783 and 1816 it was uncertain whether the United States would be able to make good its title to all the land east of the Mississippi River, between Canada and Florida. Few Americans, except fur traders, ventured north of the Ohio during the 1780's. Until 1796 British troops were garrisoned at Niagara, Detroit, and Mackinac on the American side of the Great Lakes. Their influence was a potent factor in stiffening the resistance of the Indians to the advancing American settlements until at least the end of the War of 1812. British policy was determined mainly by a desire to protect the lucrative fur trade, the economic base of this region since the arrival of the French during the seventeenth century.

The peace treaty between the English and Americans in 1783 caught the Indians by surprise and amazed tribal leaders. What right had the British to give lands of the Indians to the Americans? The red men had not agreed to the cession of the land or to the end of warfare. They angrily insisted upon the Ohio River as the approximate boundary between themselves and the American frontiersmen. They feared that the advance of American settlers would drive out their game more than had the British or French fur traders.

Indian Relations, 1783-1795

Between the Ohio River and the Lakes lived numerous Indian tribes, notably the Miami, Potawatomi, Delaware, Shawnee, Wea, Kickapoo, Piankashaw, and Wyandot or Huron. It is estimated that there were about 5,000 warriors, or 20,000 Indians, in Indiana after the Revolution. This Indian population was most numerous in the northern half of the state, especially in the Upper Wabash, St. Joseph, and Maumee valleys.

Late in the 1780's Chief Little Turtle and his powerful Miami led resistance to the American advance. American settlements on both sides of the Ohio River were raided. In 1790 Gen. Josiah Harmar was sent against the Indians only to have his detachment defeated on the banks of the Maumee within the present city of Fort Wayne. Next year Arthur St. Clair, Revolutionary War general and governor of the Northwest Territory, was routed in camp near the present Ohio-Indiana boundary east of Portland. Little Turtle was active in both Indian victories. Gen. Charles Scott of Kentucky was more successful

in his attack on Wea and Kickapoo villages surrounding Fort Ouiatenon. He burned Indian towns and destroyed the fort in June, 1791. Immediately following this stroke, Gen. James Wilkinson led an expedition against a Miami village on the Eel River, near the modern city of Logansport. He destroyed this Indian town and killed or scattered the Indians.

Angered at St. Clair's failure, President Washington appointed Anthony Wayne to lead the fight against the Indians. While Wayne collected and drilled his troops, the Indians were urged to make peace; and Little Turtle argued in vain against further resistance. Wayne advanced northward from Cincinnati in the summer of 1794 and broke the Indian power at the Battle of Fallen Timbers on the Maumee. The British did not give military aid to their red allies; and in 1796 they surrendered the border posts which they held illegally. Wayne built a fort, Fort Wayne, at the site of the old French post (Miami) at the headwaters of the Maumee. In 1795 he made peace with the Indians at Greenville, Ohio.

The treaty of Greenville cleared the greater part of Ohio and a slice of southeastern Indiana of the Indian title. For about fifteen years relations between the Indians and whites were generally peaceful. This ebbing of Indian warfare encouraged an increasing flow of population into the Ohio Valley. The area which soon became Ohio received most of the settlers.

Land Problem and Policy

Virginia's claim to the Old Northwest was strengthened by her financial support of Clark's expedition against Kaskaskia and Vincennes in 1778-79. For their efforts she gave Clark and his troops 150,000 acres of land northwest of the Ohio as a bonus. Land around present Clarksville was taken up, starting about 1784. This community became not only the first authorized American settlement in Indiana, but the first in the Northwest Territory.

During the 1780's Virginia and various other states wisely surrendered their claims to western lands to Congress. This body evolved a process of four steps by which the land of the Indians was to become the land of the American settlers. Sale of land by the Indians to the Federal government was the first requirement—a recognition of tribal title to the land and a prohibition of private purchases in which the Indians might be cheated. Next came survey of the land by the government, with sale of tracts at land offices as the third step. Settlement by the purchasers, or by those who rented or bought from the

purchasers, was the final step. Actually, a different practice was often followed: "squatters" simply moved in and settled in the wilderness, without buying or obtaining title to the property. Such illegal occupation strained Indian relations, yet often was recognized by special laws of Congress.

The Land Ordinance of 1785, providing for the survey and sale of a small area in eastern Ohio, established the method of survey used subsequently in nearly all of the public domain, including Indiana. Land was marked off into congressional townships, six miles square, with each township comprising 36 mile-square sections of 640 acres. Each sixteenth section was reserved to the future inhabitants of the township for the support of common schools. No purchase could be made of less than 640 acres, nor for less than \$1.00 per acre in cash. Congress was in debt and short of means of obtaining revenue, hence it tried to make the public domain a source of revenue to pay off the Federal debt. But these minimum terms involved more money than most prospective settlers could pay and more land than they could use. Moreover, much land, often at desirable prices, was for sale by the states or from land companies. Virginia, for example, still held the title to much land in what is now West Virginia and Kentucky, while both she and Connecticut held certain "reservations" in Ohio which had not been surrendered to the Federal government. In addition, numerous soldiers could obtain lands free or at very small cost in areas which the states or Federal government had set aside for them.

Congress sold large tracts of land to companies organized by speculators. In 1787 the Ohio Land Company bought a large area in southeastern Ohio, paying principally with claims against Congress, and founded Marietta the next year. A few other companies and wealthy individuals bought large tracts and sold smaller units to settlers. In 1796 the minimum price was increased to \$2.00 per acre. Four years later William Henry Harrison helped secure a revision which made concessions to western settlers. Although the price remained the same, the minimum acreage was reduced to 320; and payments could be made over a five-year period. An 1804 law reduced the minimum unit to 160 acres, and that same year the first Indiana land office was opened at Vincennes. As the population of the United States moved westward, the land policy of the government grew more lenient and flexible. In 1820 the price was reduced to \$1.25 an acre in cash and a settler could buy as little as 80 acres. In 1832 the minimum tract was reduced to forty acres. Much of the land in Indiana was sold in

tracts of eighty or forty acres at \$1.25 or approximately this amount per acre, including some of the most productive land within the state.

Government of the Northwest Territory

Following Clark's capture of Vincennes, the inhabitants of the Old Northwest came under the jurisdiction of Virginia. But there was almost no government in the area until after it passed into the hands of the Federal government. Major John F. Hamtramck was sent to command at Vincennes in 1787. The surrender of state land claims and the influx of settlers into the upper Ohio Valley caused Congress to organize a civil government for the Northwest Territory. It adopted the Northwest Ordinance in 1787. This law made the territory northwest of the Ohio River a unit for civil government and described the process by which states could be formed from it and admitted to the Union. Eventually Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and part of Minnesota were carved from this area.

At first the territory was ruled by a governor, three judges, and a secretary, selected by Congress without consulting the inhabitants. This nonrepresentative system was a temporary expedient until the population reached 5,000 freemen; then a bicameral assembly was to be added. The lower house was elected; the upper house was appointed by the President from persons nominated by the lower house. The assembly elected a delegate to Congress. Property qualifications were required by both voters and officeholders. The Ordinance guaranteed freedom of speech, the press, and religion; it prohibited slavery, encouraged schools, and asked that the Indians be treated fairly. When a population of 60,000 was reached, a territory was entitled to adopt a constitution and join the Union as a state. The Ordinance set the pattern for territorial government for almost all of the United States as it expanded westward.

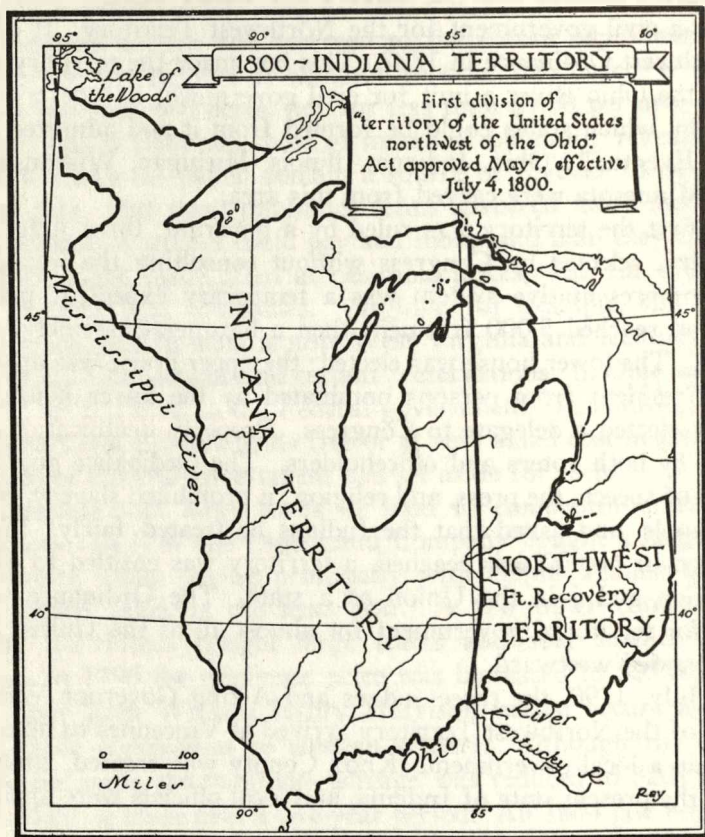
In July, 1790, the three judges and Acting Governor Winthrop Sargent of the Northwest Territory arrived at Vincennes to hold court and set up a local government. Knox County was created, embracing most of the present state of Indiana, and local officials were appointed.

Indiana Territory, 1800-1816

In 1798 Governor Arthur St. Clair proclaimed the government of the Northwest Territory to be of the second or representative level. Two years later the eastern region was nearly ready for statehood. The remainder of the Northwest Territory was separated as Indiana Territory and reverted to the first stage of government with Vincennes

as the capital. The whole of Indiana Territory contained only 5,650 people (exclusive of Indians), a majority of whom were French.

William Henry Harrison, the first governor of Indiana Territory, did not arrive in Vincennes until early in 1801. He had been secretary of the Northwest Territory and then its first delegate to Congress. Harrison was governor of Indiana until late in 1812 when he resigned to carry on military duties in the War of 1812. Subsequently his political career led to the Presidency, but he died in 1841 after only one month in office.



The governor was the most powerful official in the territory, making nearly all appointments to local offices and to the militia. He was also in charge of Indian affairs. During the first stage of territorial government (1800-1805) he and the three judges constituted the legislature and adopted laws to govern Indiana Territory. The judges served as the highest court of appeal within the territory.

The French seem to have preferred this nonrepresentative level of government, and the vastness of the area and sparseness of population made it desirable. An 1804 referendum, however, revealed a majority of the voting freeholders in favor of advancing to the representative stage, and late in the year the governor proclaimed its adoption. Elections were held, and in July, 1805, the first General Assembly of Indiana Territory met at Vincennes.

When the Ordinance of 1787 was framed, voting and officeholding were extended only to those who met certain property qualifications. The leaven of democracy worked rapidly in the western wilderness, and during Indiana Territory's second stage of government Congress granted the equivalent of universal suffrage for white males and made the territorial delegate to Congress and members of the upper house subject to popular election. An 1802 convention at Vincennes had petitioned Congress to allow slavery in the territory, but the petition was not granted. Next year the governor and judges adopted a Virginia law which permitted the substance of slavery by allowing servants to be bound for a long period of time. The law was repealed in 1810, at which time the census reported about 250 slaves in the territory. Slavery never became an established institution in Indiana, although it had existed among the French before the coming of the Americans.

Tippecanoe and the War of 1812

Governor Harrison negotiated a series of treaties between 1801 and 1809 by which the Indians ceded their claims to approximately the southern third of the present area of Indiana. These cessions brought encroachments by white settlers which threatened the Indians' continued existence in Indiana, and they organized to defend their remaining land. There were no further cessions of importance until after the War of 1812. Indian resistance was encouraged by the British in Canada and by a new generation of warriors.

The Prophet and Tecumseh, probably Shawnee brothers, were leaders in organizing opposition to the whites. The Prophet preached rejection of white influence and a return to the old Indian way of life. Tecumseh seems to have aimed at a close military organization of the Indians north and south of the Ohio. He was a man of ability who won the respect of many whites. In 1810 and again in 1811 Tecumseh met Harrison at Vincennes and denounced the cessions of land, especially the one made at Fort Wayne in 1809.

While Tecumseh was among the Indians south of the Ohio in the fall of 1811, Harrison marched up the Wabash toward the Prophet's town with a force of nearly 1,000 men. Near present-day Terre Haute

Fort Harrison was erected. The army proceeded northward up the Wabash River and encountered the Indians along the Tippecanoe River a few miles above the present city of Lafayette. The Indians asked a council for the following day, but early in the dawn of November 7 they attacked, resulting in the Battle of Tippecanoe. Harrison's troops suffered heavy casualties, with about 60 men killed and 125 wounded. The Indian losses were also heavy. Neither side won a decisive victory, but the Indians withdrew. The conflict merged into the War of 1812.

The area now forming the state of Indiana suffered more in this war than in any previous conflict. The American advance into Canada quickly backfired, and the British and Indians captured Detroit. The garrison at Fort Dearborn (Chicago) was massacred. Indian raiders penetrated as far south as Kentucky. American garrisons at Fort Harrison and Fort Wayne were besieged but not captured by the Indians. In the fall of 1812 a band of Indians swept down on the settlement at Pigeon Roost in present Scott County and massacred about twenty inhabitants, mostly women and children. On December 17, 1812, Col. John B. Campbell attacked the Miami villages on the Mississinewa River (north of the present Marion) and destroyed them, because most of the Miami had sided with the British. Individual settlers were killed and horses were stolen for several years during and even after this war.

The treaty ending the war had important consequences for the Old Northwest. There was, however, no change in the boundary between Canada and the United States. Tecumseh had died fighting with the British. The Indians had been defeated, and there were no more Indian wars in Indiana. British influence in the Old Northwest ceased to be a menace. American occupation of the region was hastened. Indiana and Illinois were almost ripe for statehood.

Early Settlers and Settlements

Nearly all immigrants to territorial Indiana were native-born Americans. Most of them came from the South (North Carolina, Maryland, Virginia, Tennessee, and Kentucky), but others came from Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York. Very few came from New England and Europe. At first, practically everyone settled in southern Indiana close to the Ohio River, with tongues of settlement running northward up the Whitewater and Wabash valleys. Many early settlers were squatters. The population was rural, yet such villages and small towns as Clarksville, New Albany, Jeffersonville, Madison, Ve-

vay, Charlestown, Brookville, Lawrenceburg, Corydon, Brownstown, Salem, Harmonie, Princeton, and Richmond had been established by the end of 1816. Fort Wayne was a military post in the northeast; Vincennes was the capital until 1813, when, after much agitation, the capital was moved to Corydon, nearer the center of population.

A Swiss colony settled at Vevay, where vineyards were planted. Thrifty German farmers and artisans who had a common religious faith and led a communal life came from Pennsylvania to the Wabash in 1814 and settled Harmonie. Under the leadership of George Rapp they labored hard and prospered for a decade.

By 1810, despite the detachment of Michigan and Illinois as separate territories, the population of Indiana Territory had jumped to almost 25,000. Five years later, despite the war, it stood close to 64,000, more than enough for statehood. At the end of the territorial period there were fifteen counties in Indiana; eight on the Ohio (Dearborn, Switzerland, Jefferson, Clark, Harrison, Perry, Warrick, Posey); two up the Whitewater (Franklin and Wayne); two more up the Wabash (Gibson and Knox); and three on the East Fork of White River (Orange, Washington, and Jackson). Rivers were important highways of transportation and travel. Most exports were floated down the Ohio and lower Mississippi to New Orleans on flatboats.

The early Hoosiers were sturdy pioneers. In southern Indiana they cleared the forests, and founded schools, churches, and towns. Here they established a civilization while central and especially northern Indiana were yet almost entirely under the sway of the Indians. They wrested a living from the soil and plied their trades.

Indiana Enters the Union, 1816

Prior to 1816 only five states had been admitted to the Union (Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, Ohio, and Louisiana). Indiana became the nineteenth state, and was followed during the next five years by Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, and Missouri. In 1811 the Indiana Assembly had petitioned Congress for statehood, but the response was not favorable. Jonathan Jennings, territorial delegate since 1809, was the leader in the statehood movement and Harrison's successor as the central political figure in the territory. A second memorial for statehood in 1815 caused Congress to pass an enabling act in April, 1816, which called for a constitutional convention at Corydon in June.

The enabling act offered five proposed "donations" to the new state. Section 16 of each congressional township was reserved for the encouragement of schools; a whole township was offered for support

of a state university; four sections of land were granted as a site for a state capital; salines (salt springs) were offered for the state to use; and 3 per cent of the proceeds from the sale of public lands within the state were to be returned for internal improvements. There was a further promise that the Federal government would set aside 2 per cent of the proceeds from public land sales to build roads to and through Indiana.

The revenue from the sections 16 was and is still used to support common schools. Indiana University was located on the township secured for an institution of higher education. The salt springs, never productive, were later sold. The Three Per Cent Fund was used to open and clear a network of trails and roads over the state. The Two Per Cent Fund helped Congress to build the National Road across Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. These donations were given by the Federal government on condition that the state would not levy taxes on land sold from the Federal domain until it had been owned for five years. Since much the greater part of Indiana still belonged to the Federal government in 1816, this agreement resulted in most of the land not being taxed for a period of five years. At this time land was decidedly the principal source of revenue for both state and local governments. Thus this tax exemption for original purchasers of land, as well as the benefits of the donations, attracted settlers to Indiana.

The Corydon convention framed an excellent constitution that drew heavily upon the practice and experience of neighboring states and the Federal Constitution. It was democratic for its day and in various respects it was better than the one which replaced it in 1851. Slavery was prohibited. The article calling upon the state to establish a system of schools was much in advance of the times, as well as beyond the immediate financial ability of the state to make effective. Believing in the right of the people to alter their fundamental law, the framers required a referendum on calling a new convention every twelfth year. The usual executive, legislative, and judicial departments were established.

The General Assembly (state legislature) was a very powerful body under the new constitution which placed few restrictions on it. The Assembly met yearly, beginning in December, and remained in session as long as it thought desirable. It elected the secretary of state, state auditor, and state treasurer. This important role for the legislature reflected the Jeffersonian philosophy of and faith in republican or representative government. The new constitution gave universal suf-

frage to white males, but on the whole it was perhaps even stronger in its attachments to *republican* than to *democratic* ideas and concepts.



In August, 1816, the first state election was held. Jonathan Jennings was chosen governor and William Hendricks congressman. In November the General Assembly convened at Corydon and elected James Noble and Waller Taylor as members of the United States Senate. On December 11, 1816, Indiana was formally admitted into the Union as the nineteenth state.

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III. THE PIONEER STATE, 1816-1865

Population Growth

When Indiana entered the Union in December of 1816 her population was about 75,000. The Federal census reported 147,178 Hoosiers in 1820, 685,866 in 1840, and 1,350,428 in 1860. In other words, the number of persons in Indiana multiplied between nine and ten times during these four decades. In 1820 Indiana ranked eighteenth among the twenty-three states of the Union in the total number of inhabitants; by 1860 she ranked sixth among the thirty-three states. An unusually high birth rate and very heavy immigration were the principal factors accounting for this extremely rapid growth in numbers.

The settlement of Indiana was a part of the westward flow of population into the Mississippi Valley which brought fifteen new states into the Union between 1792 and 1860. The early development of Indiana was the immediate result of the continued growth of settlement within the Ohio Valley. Indiana was settled more largely by southern immigrants than any other state of the Old Northwest—perhaps more largely than any northern or free state. Especially until about 1830 Indiana was principally settled by persons from the Upper South—from Virginia, North and South Carolina, Maryland, Kentucky and Tennessee. Settlers from Virginia (including present West Virginia) and Kentucky were quite numerous. From the beginning, however, settlers also came from the Middle Atlantic States, notably Pennsylvania and New York, and also from neighboring Ohio. Between 1830 and 1860 the flow of population from the Middle Atlantic States and Ohio became larger than that from the South. Only a few came from either New England or the Lower South.

Foreign immigration was small before 1830, following which it increased, especially in the forties and fifties. The majority of foreigners were either Germans or Irish, with the former greatly outnumbering the latter. According to the census of 1860, Indiana had 118,184 residents who were of foreign birth against 54,426 such residents in 1850. Of the 1860 total, 66,705 were natives of various German states, 24,495 were from Ireland, and 9,304 from England. The foreign born were widely distributed over the state.

Important results developed from the coming of the Germans and Irish. Nearly all of the Irish and perhaps one third to one half of the Germans belonged to the Roman Catholic church. Until the early

1850's by far the greater part of them, Germans as well as Irish, voted with the Democrats. During the fifties, however, many Germans shifted to support the new Republican party. The Irish made important contributions to the building of canals, railroads, and factories. The Germans helped extend the area in farms, entered trades and retail businesses, and established the brewing industry. American-born Hoosiers became concerned about this significant growth in the foreign-born population. Their concern included much criticism of the Roman Catholic Church and the view that the Irish in particular were adding to the number of paupers and the victims of intemperance. The Whigs naturally resented the fact that most foreign-born immigrants supported the Democrats. The latter, however, were so pleased with the situation that they included a provision in the Constitution of 1851 allowing foreign born who had declared their intention of becoming citizens to vote even though they had not yet become citizens. The Germans were slow to mingle with the "natives," tending to cling to their language (and wanted laws printed therein and German used in the schools), amusements, and traditions, often living in "German communities."

The movement of population in Indiana was principally from south to north, though to some extent it also moved from east to west. Many early settlers of central Indiana had been natives of the South or of southern Indiana. Likewise, a significant number of the pioneers of northern Indiana had been natives of the South or of central and southern Indiana. Many persons from Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York also settled in central and northern Indiana. Relatively few, even in these areas, were natives of New England, though an unknown number of those who came from such states as Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York were of New England parentage.

The largest town in 1840 was New Albany which had slightly more than 4,000 people. In 1850, Madison, New Albany, and Indianapolis vied for first place with about 8,000 each. Ten years later the capital city of Indianapolis led with a total close to 19,000. Many small towns and villages also developed in pioneer days.

Removal of the Capital

With Indiana's admission to the Union in 1816 legislators soon recognized that the capital town of Corydon was too far south for easy travel from the northern part of the state. Yet central Indiana was still occupied by Indians. A treaty with them in 1818 secured title to this area (called the "New Purchase") and the Delaware agreed

to move west within three years. Early in 1820 the state legislature named a commission to select a new site for the capital. The group journeyed toward the center of the state and selected a site at the juncture of Fall Creek with White River in the midst of a woods. The Federal government had already given the state four square miles of land so that lots could be sold and the revenue therefrom used to build a new capitol and other public buildings.

The recommendation of the commission was accepted by the legislature in January, 1821. The name of Indianapolis was given to the new site. Surveyors laid out the town while settlers began moving in. Lots were first sold in the fall of 1821. The legislature organized Marion County with Indianapolis as the county seat and authorized the building of a courthouse which would serve temporarily as a state capitol. To this courthouse Samuel Merrill, the state treasurer, moved the records and money belonging to the state in the fall of 1824. The legislature convened in the new location in January, 1825. A new state capitol was completed in 1835.

The Delaware Indians left Indiana in 1820, making possible the rapid settlement of central Indiana during the twenties. During the thirties the flow of settlers into central Indiana increased, and beach-heads of settlement in northern Indiana grew in size and in number. By the 1830's there was a strong desire on the part of Hoosiers to have the Potawatomi and Miami Indians removed from the state, though some of the fur traders attempted to delay removal in order to extend the profits from their trade with the tribesmen. During the thirties the Federal government made various treaties with the Potawatomi, nearly all of whom departed for the area west of the Mississippi between the late thirties and 1850. In 1840 the Miami ceded their last important holdings in the state, and by 1846 most of them had likewise gone west. The Indians suffered much because of these removals. The suffering endured by the Potawatomi during their forced emigration in 1838 has caused this trek westward to be called "The Trail of Death."

The fifteen counties existing in 1816 became the final ninety-two by 1860, with nearly all of them organized as early as 1840. The prairie lands in northwestern Indiana were slow to be occupied because of their wetness, the lack of tools to cultivate such soil, and the preference of settlers for timbered regions. Newton County, organized in 1860, was the last county to be established. Exactly seventy years had passed since Indiana's first county, Knox, had been organized.

Making a Living

An important task of most early settlers was the selection of a site for a home. This choice was determined largely by access to markets, availability of drinking water, drainage, nearness to other settlers, and a preference for wooded land with the advantage of occupying a clearing if possible. A desire to reach markets prompted many settlers to locate along or near rivers. Neighbors were generally welcomed, but not too many. A site already cleared by fire, Indians, hunters, or earlier settlers gave one a head start in growing corn and vegetables.

Pioneer homes were usually log cabins, although newcomers at times built half-faced camps (one side open) for temporary shelter. Building a log cabin was often a co-operative enterprise involving the labor of neighbors to lift the logs in place. Similarly, fields were sometimes cleared by "logrolling" parties in which men and boys with teams contested in rolling felled trees into heaps for burning. Frontier individualism was rarely absolute; community co-operation was required for survival. In this environment Abraham Lincoln spent his formative years, from age seven to twenty-one, in Spencer County. As the early pioneers prospered, they could afford better houses of brick, stone, or sawed lumber. In time, well-proportioned furniture replaced crude benches, tables, and beds. Some houses were in the classical architecture of ancient times. There remain several fine examples in southern and central Indiana of the "Greek Revival" style of architecture, e.g., the Lanier House in Madison.

Labor and thrift were exalted partly as a matter of making a virtue of an economic necessity. Hard work was the common lot of men, women, and children, with the role of women the most severe of all. Yet the rewards of hard work were almost certain. Clearing the dense forest and planting and cultivating crops were long and tiring tasks done with only a few simple tools. Men worked hardest while planting and harvesting but had seasons when they could hunt or take trips. Teen-age boys and girls did about everything that was done by their parents. They made play out of work at corn huskings and at maple sugar time. Mother's work was never done; and "raising" a large family made an endless task of cleaning, mending, sewing, cooking, and caring for the sick or injured. In addition, women had a large share in tending the garden, caring for the chickens, and instructing the children. Each year they faced the job of making jams, jellies, preserves, drying fruits and vegetables, and helping with the butchering and curing of meat.

Agriculture was the leading occupation of pioneer Indiana, and corn was the main crop. It could be planted in cleared patches in which stumps were left. It was food for man and beast. Pioneers ate corn on the cob, as hominy, mixed it with beans for succotash, parched it, made corn bread, hoe cake, and mush. Some drank their corn as whiskey, but it was more common to turn corn into pork by feeding it to hogs. Swine had no rival among livestock, though there were oxen, horses, cattle, sheep, and poultry on most farms. Corn fed to hogs produced meat for the table and provided a crop that could be transformed into porkers to be driven to markets in river towns.

Pioneer farming methods were wasteful and destructive of soil fertility. Lack of crop rotation, seed selection, adequate cultivation, proper tools, and fertilizers characterized early agriculture; but yields were at times high because of the richness of the soil. By the forties and fifties the good influence of county agricultural societies, farm papers, and individuals interested in better seeds, stock, methods, and tools slowly began to be felt. County and state fairs, with exhibits, premiums, and contests, contributed to this improvement.

Pioneer manufacturing was almost entirely for local use. It was produced mainly through household processes, trades, and in establishments such as sawmills, gristmills, packing plants, boatyards, and distilleries. Clothing, food, utensils, furniture, soap, candles, farm tools and implements were made by quite a number of household processes. Tradesmen or craftsmen made shoes, leather, hats, barrels, furniture, wagons, and many other articles. The blacksmiths were tradesmen who made plows and guns and shod horses or oxen. Sawmills and gristmills soon became numerous. Many river towns "packed" salted pork into barrels for export, and some of these plants were small factories. Pioneer manufacturing was thus largely a matter of processing items obtained from farms and forests.

Travel and Transportation

In territorial days there was not an improved highway within Indiana. The early settlers followed trails made by the Indians or animals through the wilderness. Travel downstream on the rivers in flatboats was much easier, although such travel was affected by floods, rapids, sand bars, and fallen trees. Flatboats often continued down to the lower Mississippi with such cargoes as pork, whiskey, corn, and lard. In 1811 the first steamboat appeared on the Ohio. By the early 1820's steamboats began pointing their noses up the Whitewater, Wabash, and White rivers. In 1831 one reached Indianapolis but it

got stuck on a sand bar on its return voyage. By 1840 many steamboats were plying up and down the Ohio with cargoes and passengers, but until at least the fifties the flatboat probably remained the chief vehicle of river transportation.

An early road was the Buffalo Trace, a widened buffalo trail running from New Albany to Vincennes. In the late 1820's and early 1830's two roads were opened across the state. The National Road, which Congress had projected from Cumberland, Maryland, to St. Louis, crossed Indiana via Richmond, Indianapolis, and Terre Haute. The state developed the Michigan Road, running from Madison northward through Shelbyville, Indianapolis, Logansport, and South Bend to Michigan City. Beginning in the 1820's stagecoaches carried passengers, mail, and small freight in jolting fashion, through mud or dust, over these crude highways. Logs were sometimes laid in low muddy places, making "corduroy roads." Later, plank roads were tried but they did not prove satisfactory.

The 1830's introduced the "canal age" to Indiana. Aided by a Federal land grant, in 1832 the Wabash and Erie was started to connect Lake Erie with the Wabash. It was eventually extended via Terre Haute to Evansville. About twenty years were required to build it. The state alone provided for the Whitewater Canal, running north from Lawrenceburg to Brookville and on to Cambridge City alongside the Whitewater River. A third canal, never finished, was projected from Peru through Marion, Anderson, and Indianapolis, following the White River to a junction with the Wabash and Erie Canal. Because canals required heavy investments and constant care in the face of floods, Indiana went heavily in debt. The competition of the railroads hastened the downfall of the canal system. The state defaulted on its interest payments; and the Wabash and Erie Canal bondholders were given stock in exchange for the bonds, half of it guaranteed by the state and half dependent upon canal tolls. The canal was then turned over to the stockholders to operate, maintain, and lengthen. The Whitewater Canal was sold to a private company, but a succession of floods led to its abandonment during the 1850's.

Indiana's first railroad was a short line built at Shelbyville in 1834, the car being pulled by a horse. A steam railroad was started northward from Madison in 1838. The rails reached Columbus in 1844 and Indianapolis in 1847, when a great celebration was held. By 1850 there were about 220 miles of railroad in Indiana, and in 1860 the total had jumped to 2,200 miles.

Improvements in transportation stimulated settlement in the northern half of the state, encouraged land booms there, and increased Indiana's connections with the East. But prior to the Civil War most of Indiana's exports went down the Ohio. The growing railroad connections with the East were important in strengthening Union sentiment before and during the Civil War. The first telegraph office in Indiana opened in Vincennes late in 1847. By 1860 a network of telegraph lines had spread over the state. The advent of the telegraph resulted in the establishment of quite a number of daily newspapers during the 1850's. Until this decade nearly all Indiana papers had been weeklies.

Education and Religion

The Constitution of 1816 called for the establishment of "a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation, from township schools to a state university, as soon as circumstances will permit," but no "system" was established before 1851 when a new constitution was adopted. Public schools were on a local-option basis and even they often charged tuition. Churches and individuals maintained many good private schools, but they were generally not free. The Quakers probably had the best elementary schools, while many ministers, especially Presbyterians, taught schools.

Obstacles to the development of free public schools included the tax burden, a sparse population, transportation difficulties, a lingering feeling of class and sectarian differences, and a preference by some families for schools under church or private control. Finally, the state plunged itself into so much debt for canals that for a while it could not support free schools. Colleges and universities were numerous enough, but they barely survived financially and had meager enrollments. Vincennes University was incorporated by the General Assembly in 1806. Indiana University opened at Bloomington about 1825. It is the oldest state university west of the Appalachians in point of continuous operation. Other colleges founded before 1860 were Hanover, Franklin, DePauw, Notre Dame, Earlham, and Butler.

A crosscurrent in the stream of Indiana's cultural development was created by the sale in 1825 of Harmonie, on the lower Wabash, by German pietists who had a communal colony there under Father George Rapp. The new owner was Robert Owen, a Scottish industrialist with radical views on communitarian living, the rights of labor, and public education. His social experiment in Indiana attracted intellectuals and idealists as well as the erratic and lazy. The venture col-

lapsed after two years of wrangling. Those who remained owned their property privately and turned their attention to advanced educational practices such as the kindergarten, adult education, manual training, public libraries, and local publishing. Not the least of the beneficial effects on the state of Robert Owen's interest in the town, now called New Harmony, was the settlement in Indiana of his four talented sons, Robert Dale, David Dale, William, and Richard.

The Constitution of 1851 was less favorable to "a general system of education" than the Constitution of 1816 had been, but a favorable public opinion, combined with increased financial strength, led to the achievement of a free public school system during the latter half of the nineteenth century.

Most of the early Hoosiers were Protestants, with the Methodists, Presbyterians, and Baptists among the earliest and most numerous. After 1840 the Christians (Disciples of Christ) increased to complete the "big four" of Protestantism. The Quakers, United Brethren, Episcopalians, Lutherans, and Unitarians were also important Protestant groups. The oldest religious group in Indiana was Roman Catholic, established by the French at Vincennes before 1750. Domestic immigration brought additional Catholics, and their number was greatly increased with the advent of the Irish and Germans.

Many early churches were organized and first met in homes, schools, barns, or groves. The itinerant system of Methodism was well suited to frontier conditions and helps explain its rapid advance. The circuit-riding preacher was also used by other denominations. Many ministers showed zeal that spurred them on amid great hardships and sacrifices to bring the Gospel to isolated settlements. That not everyone responded to the program of the churches is indicated by the stress on "revivals," which were commonly supercharged with emotional appeals to better conduct. The churches were the main antagonist of frontier drinking, brawling, and gambling.

Political Parties and Issues

Indiana Territory was organized shortly after the Federalist party of Washington and Hamilton was overthrown by the Jeffersonian Republicans. In Indiana Territory a rivalry soon developed between the followers of Harrison and Jennings, but both factions were Jeffersonian Republicans. There was also an east-west rivalry between the Whitewater Valley and lower Wabash settlers which was partly identified with this personal rivalry. Issues were not sharply defined; but a

general demand existed for increased political democracy, support of the War of 1812, a stern Indian policy, land legislation more generous to settlers, and Federal support of internal improvements.

With the national election of 1824 the Jeffersonian Republicans split into National Republicans led by John Quincy Adams and Henry Clay and Democratic Republicans led by Andrew Jackson and others. The former encouraged Federal support of internal improvements, a protective tariff, a strong representative government, and liberal interpretation of the Federal Constitution. The Jacksonians included men of divergent views who were less certain what they favored, but they represented a western surge toward a broader democracy and elevation of the "common man" which was irresistible. Issues were often overshadowed by personalities. Indiana voted for Jackson for president in 1824, 1828, and 1832, but generally favored the National Republicans in state and local elections during these years.

From 1834 until 1843 Indiana was dominated by the Whigs (who succeeded the National Republicans in 1834) and in general adopted their program. In the presidential elections of 1836 and 1840 Indiana voted for William Henry Harrison, her first territorial governor, and against Martin Van Buren, whom Jackson hand-picked as the Democratic nominee to succeed him. The Indiana Whigs had very capable leaders. They established the unusually successful Second State Bank in 1834 which continued until its charter expired in 1859. They were also in power when the internal improvement system of 1836 was approved by the General Assembly. Thus when it plunged the state into a very large debt and had to be abandoned, the Whigs rather than the Democrats, who had also supported it, were blamed for its failure and the costly debt. The fact that the late thirties and early forties was a period of depression added to the difficulties and the unpopularity of the Whigs in Indiana.

The Democrats dominated state politics in Indiana from 1843 until the outbreak of the Civil War in 1861. They lowered the state debt, practiced economy, established common schools, urged states' rights, stressed the rights of individuals, and provided institutions for the insane, the blind, and the deaf and dumb. Until about 1850 they generally ignored or evaded the emerging slavery issue, viewed temperance as a moral rather than a political issue, and successfully sought the support of the Germans and Irish. After considerable agitation, a new constitution was drafted in 1850-51 under Democratic influence. It reflected Jacksonian concepts and made elections more frequent, increased the number of elective offices, prohibited a state debt except for

certain emergencies, substituted biennial for annual sessions of the Assembly, limited regular sessions to sixty-one days, and prohibited further Negro immigration.

Though slavery had never been an institution in Indiana, neither had free Negroes been welcomed. Indiana had about 11,000 Negroes when their further coming was prohibited by the new constitution. The more militant antislavery movement was echoed by some Free Soil newspapers, and some church leaders increasingly condemned slavery on moral grounds. The agitation of antislavery elements, such as the Liberty and Free Soil parties, was felt. Many Whigs, for example, objected to the Mexican War as a conspiracy to extend slavery.

Then came the Kansas-Nebraska Act in 1854, allowing settlers in either territory to determine whether they would have slaves. This act was the spark that caused a political revolution. The Republican party suddenly emerged. It opposed slavery extension and demanded free land from the public domain for settlers. An increasing number of Hoosiers were going West, and they wanted not only free land, but land free of slavery. The new party encouraged temperance, and under its influence the state tried prohibition briefly. The Democrats were hard to dislodge, and not until 1860 did the Republicans carry Indiana for the Presidency and also elect a governor and a majority in both houses of the General Assembly. In this election Indiana voted for Abraham Lincoln as President and Henry S. Lane as governor.

Threats of secession alarmed Hoosiers. Although a vast majority preferred some compromise short of war, they were equally firm in believing that preservation of the Union was an economic and political necessity. Indecision ended when the Confederates fired on the expedition sent to resupply Fort Sumter in April, 1861. For the moment there was a unity of purpose and feeling greatly in excess of anything the state had ever known.

The Civil War and Its Aftermath

The call to arms by President Lincoln produced more Hoosier volunteers than requested or needed, and a special session of the General Assembly provided for recruiting and weapons. Governor Oliver P. Morton, who had succeeded Lane as governor, moved in advance of public opinion and the tide of events. Initial unity and enthusiasm waned as the prolonged conflict brought accounts of suffering and heavy casualties, making recruiting difficult. Bounties were offered, then drafting enforced.

Altogether Indiana supplied about 200,000 men to the Union forces during the Civil War. This represented about 15 per cent of her

total population as of 1860. About 25,000—or one in eight—lost their lives from battle wounds, disease, or accidents. Thousands of others were maimed with loss of arms, legs, etc. The Civil War was the most terrible and costly conflict in terms of human life in which Indiana has ever engaged. Indiana's losses in the Civil War were not far from twice her losses in men (and women) during both World War I and World War II. About 95 per cent of the Hoosiers who fought in the Civil War were volunteers, though doubtless a considerable number of them volunteered to collect bounties or escape the draft.

Indiana was not the scene of any decisive battles, but there were occasional raids on this side of the Ohio. The most alarming was made by General John Hunt Morgan in the summer of 1863. Jeffersonville served as an important military depot for Union forces being sent into the South.

On the home front much political strife resulted from a blending of politics and patriotism. There was opposition to the war, including some interference with the draft by organized secret societies. Democrats charged Governor Morton with highhanded and arbitrary conduct of the war, and Morton's associates accused the Democrats of treasonable and obstructionist tactics. When the General Assembly gained a Democratic majority in 1862 and failed to give Morton the appropriations he needed, he borrowed money from a New York bank with which James F. D. Lanier, formerly of Madison, Indiana, was associated, to carry on the state's activities. Eventually the state sustained Morton's independent action and repaid this and other loans.

The Civil War induced various significant changes. The common school system, which had been established during the fifties, suffered setbacks and thus retarded the development of schools at the secondary and college levels. There was an increased use of machinery in manufacturing. Agriculture used such labor-saving machinery as the reaper, the improved plow, and the threshing machine. Railroads were extended so that in the remaining years of the century the basic railway system was completed. Changes in transportation and manufacturing were powerful factors in furthering urbanization. The population of central and northern Indiana grew rapidly during and following the war. Although Indiana remained predominantly rural and agrarian after 1865, as mechanization, industrialization, and urbanization waxed, pioneer ways and influences waned. A new society was taking shape.

The state had begun to provide asylums for the deaf and dumb, the blind, and the insane in the forties. The war produced its orphans and widows, thereby enlarging the social responsibility and concern of

the state government. Negro exclusion was ended; suffrage was extended; and schools were opened for Negroes. Following the Civil War, questions concerning taxes, regulation of industry and the railroads, labor-management relations, marketing, and the like soon thrust themselves into politics, despite the reluctance of politicians to deal forthrightly with them.

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IV. MODERN DEVELOPMENT, 1865-1966

Population Changes

Although the volume of population increase in Indiana has been larger since the Civil War than preceding it, the percentage of growth has been less. The 1860 total of 1,350,000 inhabitants was nearly doubled by 1900, when the population reached 2,516,000. Between the turn of the century and 1940, the total climbed to 3,428,000, an increase of over 900,000, but less than 40 per cent, for this forty-year period. Indiana ranked twelfth in population among the states in 1950, with 3,934,000 people. In 1960 the population reached 4,662,498.

In 1860 more than 90 per cent of the people lived in rural areas, with only a few cities having a population in excess of 10,000. Indianapolis, the largest, had less than 19,000. A majority of the population then lived in the southern half of the state. Urbanization and a northward sweep have characterized population trends since the Civil War. By 1900 about one third of the population was urban and by 1960 about two thirds. By the latter date most of the larger cities and the majority of the people were in the northern half of the state. The 1960 census showed Indianapolis with a population of 476,258.

Indiana's urban population has always been decentralized—scattered over a number of cities and numerous towns—so that the state has never had any one towering metropolitan center to dominate its economic, political, and cultural life. Because of this urban decentralization Indiana residents have remained closer to the soil and more familiar with farm life and rural traditions than they would otherwise have done. Moreover, from about the 1920's many people who obtain their living in cities and towns have bought or built homes in the country, and an increasing number of rural residents who were farmers have either ceased farming or become part-time farmers in order to work in offices and factories. Hence the traditional differences between rural and urban communities of the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were much modified and in part eliminated during the decades following World War I.

There has been considerable immigration from other states to Indiana and much emigration from Indiana to other states since 1860. Until World War I, at least, such states as Ohio, Kentucky, Illinois, Virginia, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and North Carolina supplied the bulk of Hoosiers who were born outside the state. These states have continued to send numerous natives to Indiana, but since

World War I there has been an increase in immigration from other states in various parts of the country. During the last half of the nineteenth century an increasing flow of native-born Hoosiers went to other states, especially to Ohio, Kentucky, Illinois, Missouri, Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, Wisconsin, and Michigan. Since the 1890's many Hoosiers have continued to move to these states, but many others have gone eastward to manufacturing and metropolitan centers, and some have scattered to other areas of the United States. In other words, during the twentieth century there has been a greater diffusion of the sources of domestic immigration to Indiana and likewise of emigration from Indiana to other states than during the previous century.

Foreign immigration reached an all-time high between the Civil War and World War I, then dropped considerably. The Germans and the Irish remained the two leading nationalities, at least until World War I, with the Germans greatly outnumbering the Irish. A lesser number of immigrants continued to come from England, Canada, France, and Scotland. During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries natives of such places in southern and eastern Europe as Poland, Italy, Austria, Hungary, and Russia arrived in increasing numbers. Some also came from Belgium, Wales, Holland, Sweden, and other countries of northern Europe. The natives of southern and eastern Europe settled principally in the cities, particularly in South Bend, East Chicago, Gary, Whiting, and Indianapolis. Though they came mainly from the peasant population of Europe, in Indiana these immigrants usually became factory and mill workers. Foreign immigration virtually stopped during World War I, was much restricted by Congress during the 1920's, and has since remained on a reduced level with persons from western and northern Europe outnumbering those from southern and eastern areas.

The Negro population of Indiana increased from 11,428 in 1860 to 57,705 in 1900, and to 174,168 in 1950. During the nineteenth century the Negro population was largely rural, but in the twentieth it mainly became urban with a significant proportion of the total living in Indianapolis and Gary. The majority of Negroes came from the Lower South.

The New Agriculture

Agriculture remained the leading occupation of Indiana until about World War I when manufacturing took its place. Nevertheless, even after the war the value of products from Indiana farms continued to increase, amounting to more than one billion dollars annually during the 1960's. This shift from agriculture to manufacturing occurred at

about the same time Indiana became more urban than rural, as would be expected. The area of land farmed in Indiana doubled between 1860 and 1900, but since the early twentieth century there has been a gradual decrease in acreage.

Indiana's increased agricultural output, in spite of declining acreage, has resulted in large part from improved methods and practices on the part of Hoosier farmers. These include increased use of more and improved farm machinery; rotation of crops; augmented use of clovers, legumes, and grasses; the sowing of better seed and the breeding of better breeds of farm animals; an improvement in the shelter and care of farm animals, made necessary in part because the new breeds could not survive the exposure often experienced by pioneer stock; the increased use of barnyard manures and also of commercial fertilizers; progress in draining ponds, swamps, and wet places on the one hand and improved control of erosion on the other; and much more effective plowing and cultivation of the soil than in early days.

Of particular importance has been the increased use of farm machinery. From the Civil War until about the 1920's such implements as plows, cultivators, reapers and binders, mowers, and rakes were mainly pulled by horses and mules. These implements are now either self-propelled or are pulled by tractors. In addition, trucks, combines, corn-pickers, milkers, and grain shellers have become common. By the 1960's machines were being used in the picking of tomatoes. The greatly increased use of fertilizers and the rapid development of hybrid seed during recent decades have also contributed much to the continuing increase in agricultural output.

Various other factors have also contributed to the "New Agriculture." Numerous county and state agricultural organizations and societies, county and state fairs and exhibits, agricultural papers and newspapers, and the general increase in scientific knowledge have all been important factors. Of great importance has been the influence of Purdue University through its agricultural college, short courses for farmers, research and experimentation in farming, agricultural extension program, and co-operation with county agents. Its work has been made possible by both state and Federal appropriations. But the general advance in education, from elementary schools through graduate instruction, has also been a very important boon to agricultural progress as well as to various other economic developments. Numerous farmers have taken the lead in encouraging new ideas and practices in agriculture.

From pioneer days Indiana's agriculture has rested more on corn and hogs than on any other combination. Until recent decades corn, wheat, and oats remained the leading field crops; but the soya bean, hardly produced at all as late as 1920, is now the second most valuable field crop. Some tobacco has long been grown in several counties of southern Indiana. Tomatoes have been a crop of considerable significance in various counties from the 1880's. As urbanization increased, the production of vegetables, fruits, berries, melons, and popcorn has gained. Horses, cattle, and sheep, as well as hogs, continued to be numerous, though farm machinery and trucks replaced horses and mules on most farms by the 1950's. Cattle, both for beef and milk products, have been important during the last century. During the twentieth century poultry production, both for eggs and meat, has grown to significant volume. Thus, although Indiana is no longer principally an agricultural state, it has remained one of the leading farming states of the United States. Its agricultural output has continued to increase.

Manufacturing

The growth of manufacturing has perhaps been a principal factor in changing the economic scene in Indiana since the Civil War. This growth, as in the United States generally, has been characterized by the emergence of the giant corporation, with mass production made possible by division of labor into small tasks which are easily learned and rapidly done. The increased production of goods at lower cost has made possible a consequent rise in the general standard of living. In 1860 the aggregate value of manufactured products was close to \$43,000,000, with approximately 21,300 wage earners employed.

The ten leading industries in the order of their rank were flour and grist milling, lumber, meats, liquor, machinery, textiles, carriages and wagons, boots and shoes, leather, and furniture. The total value of milling products exceeded the combined value of the eight next largest industries. Manufacturing was concentrated principally in counties bordering the Ohio and Wabash rivers or along the National Road.

By 1900 the value of manufactured goods had jumped to \$378,120,000, and the number of laborers had climbed to almost 156,000. Output per worker had increased because of the growing use of machinery and greater division of labor. The ten leading industries at the end of the century ranked as follows: slaughtering and meat packing, flour and grist milling, lumber and timber products, liquor, iron and steel, foundry and machine shop products, carriages and wagons, glass,

railroad cars, and clothing. Manufacturing was scattered widely over the state, and southern Indiana had lost its primacy.

Indiana manufacturing underwent important changes during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Corporations increased rapidly in size and became the dominant type of business organization in manufacturing industries; manufacturers increasingly obtained raw materials from places outside Indiana and increasingly sold their products elsewhere; and labor-management relations became much more impersonal than they had been in the shops, mills, packing plants, and factories of earlier decades. Moreover, until the early twentieth century manufacturing was principally a matter of processing or making items from materials received from the farms and forests of the state. For instance, from 1860 to 1900 much the greater part of manufacturing consisted of making wheat and corn into flour and meal, hogs and cattle into meat, timber into lumber, and corn into whiskey. In these decades manufacturing was clearly dependent upon and subordinate to agriculture. Following this period manufacturing became more diversified, and the age of steel gradually replaced the age of wood. By 1920 the three leading industries of Indiana processed or made iron and steel, automobiles, and railroad cars. This transition from manufacturing based mainly on agriculture to that based largely on iron and steel came at approximately the same time that manufacturing replaced agriculture as the leading occupation.

The trend away from manufacturing based on agriculture continued at a rapid pace after World War I. In 1947 the total value of manufactured products was about three billion dollars, and the total grew considerably during the 1950's as manufacturing extended its lead over agriculture. Even allowing generously for the decreased purchasing power of the dollar, the rapid growth of manufacturing remains obvious. By 1947 manufacturing industries employed about 548,000 wage earners. Industries based on the processing of iron and steel or the making of products therefrom retained their leadership; but such industries as food and kindred products, chemicals and allied items, petroleum and coal products, rubber, glass, clothing, printing, and furniture have been of considerable importance. For a while Indiana showed promise of becoming a center of automobile production. Though this did not happen, the state did become an important producer of automobile parts. Cars and trucks were made at South Bend by Studebaker and later by Studebaker-Packard until the 1960's. The electric machinery industry also developed rapidly after World War I. During the twentieth century Indiana has generally ranked about

eighth or ninth among the states in the total value of its manufactured products. This is a very high ranking for a state of limited size.

Meanwhile, the shift of industry continued from southern to central and northern Indiana. The phenomenal rise of Gary, founded in 1906, helped to make the Calumet region the leading industrial section of the state. However, St. Joseph, Elkhart, Allen, Vigo, Marion, Wayne, and Vanderburgh counties contributed much of the total for manufacturing.

Growth of the Studebaker Corporation at South Bend serves as a vivid example of the growth of manufacturing in northern Indiana. In 1852 the Studebaker blacksmith shop began making wagons. It was then only one of hundreds of blacksmith shops; in 1860 it was valued at \$10,000. By 1900, 2,500 employees were engaged in making wagons and carriages that brought sales of nearly \$4,000,000. In 1940 there were nearly 8,000 employees, with total sales of over \$84,000,000, chiefly of automobiles and trucks. The corporation's figures for 1945, the last year of World War II, revealed a peak employment of 23,600 and sales amounting to nearly \$213,000,000. Despite this record, the Studebaker output declined after the war.

Mining

Although never ranking high as a mining state, Indiana has produced a substantial volume of mineral products. Mining has been the principal occupation in various counties, and the total value of output during the 1950's was roughly \$250,000,000 yearly—about one fourth the total for agriculture. Hoosiers showed much interest in mineral resources as early as the 1830's at which time David Dale Owen made the first systematic survey for the location of mineral wealth. Not much additional surveying was done until the 1870's, since which time geological work has continued.

Very little mining occurred in Indiana until after the Civil War. In the early days the pioneers boiled water at various salt springs in an effort to obtain salt, but these efforts produced only meager results. Owen's survey in the late 1830's offered useful information about iron, coal, and stone. He warned that gold and silver were apparently lacking. Nevertheless, about mid-century there was a flurry of excitement about gold discoveries in Brown, Morgan, and other counties. Owen's report that precious metals were lacking, save in minor traces, has been sustained by subsequent geological work. Owen correctly reported that Indiana had large deposits of soft coal and building stone, but that its iron ores were of poor quality and low value. Some stone and coal were mined in pioneer days, but it was mostly for local use.

Since the Civil War, coal, limestone, gas, oil, clay, and sand and gravel have been among the products mined. Gypsum found in Martin County was added in the 1950's. The natural gas boom from about 1886 to 1906 helped develop manufacturing in east-central Indiana, especially the glass industry. Limestone and sandstone have been of great importance in Lawrence, Monroe, and Spencer counties. Oil production has been scattered and sporadic, but it has increased considerably since the 1940's. Coal production has been a major occupation in such counties as Clay, Greene, Pike, Sullivan, Vermillion, Vigo, Daviess, Gibson, Knox, Owen, Parke, Perry, Vanderburgh, Spencer, and Warrick. During the 1950's Indiana's diversified mineral output was valued in excess of that of various western states which are often considered mining states.

Labor

As indicated earlier in this chapter, the growth of manufacturing resulted in a very rapid growth in the number of wage earners. Likewise, as transportation, retailing, service, and other enterprises developed, wage earners also rapidly grew in numbers in these areas. By the twentieth century, wage earners had become numerous enough to be of great influence in economic, political, and civic matters.

Following the Civil War, laborers in manufacturing industries generally worked amid undesirable circumstances. Hours of labor were very long, often in excess of sixty hours per week; working conditions were frequently both unhealthy and dangerous; numerous women and children were employed for excessive hours and often at low rates; and employment was often jeopardized by membership in unions. These and related conditions, however, seem much more objectionable to Hoosiers in the 1960's than they did to workers who were familiar with the privations and hardships of economic life which persisted throughout the nineteenth century. During the last two decades of the century some improvement was made in working conditions through legislation. This improvement resulted from legal recognition of labor unions, regulation of working conditions to make them more healthy and less dangerous, limitation on the hours of work for women and children, and the requirement that wages be paid at stated intervals. Quite likely, however, much of this legislation was ineffective.

Meanwhile, labor unions grew in number and in membership after the Civil War. A number of trade or craft unions existed in the state before the war, and such unions made significant progress during the last third of the century. The Indiana State Federation of Labor was organized in 1885, and by 1900 various trade unions had their na-

tional headquarters in the state. Among the coal miners there developed what came to be known as an industrial union, but trade and craft unions were representative of Indiana labor until the 1930's. Since then various industrial unions—such as in the automobile, steel, rubber, and textile industries—have become strong and powerful. During the late 1950's most of the trade and industrial unions merged into one over-all organization known as the American Federation of Labor—Congress of Industrial Organizations.

Working conditions for wage earners improved much during the years from 1900 to 1960. Much of this improvement resulted from a general increase in living standards, which arose from the rapid increase in the output of farms and factories. Part of it resulted from favorable legislation, and part of it stemmed from the efforts of labor unions. Hours were decreased to about forty to forty-five hours weekly for most jobs; conditions of employment became much more sanitary and safe than previously; wages increased; vacations with pay became common; and unemployment, pension, retirement, and other benefits developed. Meanwhile, industrial strife flared between management and labor now and then, though such conflict has usually been resolved without violence.

Transportation

The rapid growth of agriculture, manufacturing, and cities would not have been possible without the rapid growth in transportation facilities. Improved transportation facilities greatly extended markets within Indiana, between Indiana and other states, and also with other countries. Until the early twentieth century the progress of railroads was the most important single achievement in transportation. Since then, however, the growth of the transportation system has been rapid, and it has become more diversified than previously.

In 1850 Indiana had about 220 miles of steam railroad lines—not enough to reach across the state from north to south. Most of this mileage belonged to the Madison and Indianapolis Railroad and its spur lines. These early lines were connected directly or indirectly to river traffic on the Ohio, illustrating that Indiana's early railroads were subordinate to water transportation. In 1850 there was no connection between these railroads and those of neighboring states.

Indiana's railroad mileage jumped rapidly during the last half of the nineteenth century. It totaled about 2,200 miles in 1860, almost 4,400 miles in 1880, and close to 6,500 miles in 1900. The total was approximately 7,400 miles in 1910 and 1920, since which it has declined decade by decade. The total was about 6,650 in 1950 and even

less in 1960. During the 1850's railroad connections were made with Ohio and other states eastward to the Atlantic and by the end of the century connections were available to all regions of the United States. Railroads achieved an importance in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries which gave them the dominant role in the transportation system for several decades. This development of railroads (as well as the rapid growth of traffic on the Great Lakes in the same period) played an important role in the economic development and increase in population of northern Indiana.

Meanwhile, diversification of transportation facilities developed and ultimately resulted in the relative decline of the railroads. Traffic on the Great Lakes generally increased after the 1850's—and with the opening of the new St. Lawrence Seaway in 1958 this trend is likely to continue. From the end of the Civil War through the early twentieth century traffic on the Ohio River languished, but it too has grown during the last several decades until it has reached a new high. In the last half of the nineteenth century there was considerable progress in building gravel roads, through both governmental and private efforts. Horse- or mule-drawn street cars appeared in Indianapolis during the Civil War, and by the late 1880's various Hoosier cities had such transportation. During the 1890's most city street cars became electrified. Electric trolleys for cities resulted in the development of interurbans in the same decade, and soon there was a network of them reaching into all parts of the state. Interurbans almost disappeared during the 1930's because of the depression and the impact of automobiles, buses, and trucks.

One of the first automobiles in the United States was made by Elwood Haynes at Kokomo and was tried out on a pike near there in 1894. Dozens of different makes of cars have been manufactured in Indiana, and for a while it was thought the state might become the center of this industry. Automobiles are still made in Indiana, but the state's main role in this industry has been the making of parts and accessories.

The advent of the automobile stimulated the improvement of highways, especially since the 1920's when Indiana had only a few thousand miles of state highways. In 1950 the total was about 11,300 miles. These highways—supported by both state and Federal appropriations—were generally the best roads in the state, but at this time there were also about 75,000 miles of county highways many of which were also excellent roads. Since the late 1950's Indiana has made a good start on the building of interstate highways, financed mainly by

the Federal government. The growth of automobile, bus, and truck transportation has been the major development in Indiana transportation since 1900. From the 1940's, however, air travel and transportation have rapidly gained in importance. The competition from airplanes, as well as that from cars, buses, and trucks, contributed to the relative decline of railroad traffic.

Progress in communication accompanied improvement in transportation. Great expansion came in the telegraph network of the state, though the telegraph had first appeared in the late 1840's. The telephone became fairly common in urban centers in the 1880's and 1890's and soon spread to most rural neighborhoods as well. Radio developed rapidly in the 1920's and television appeared in the 1940's. These gains in communication and transportation have had much influence on economic, social, and political life.

Modern Education and Churches

Though the Civil War disrupted and retarded the free common schools, the battle for favorable public opinion in support of them had largely been won. Since then common school terms have been lengthened, education has been made compulsory, teachers have become better prepared, new subjects have been added to the curriculum and old ones revamped, school "activities" have greatly increased, more suitable buildings have been erected, and the amount of administrative control and supervision have increased. Consolidated schools existed in most rural areas by the 1930's, and schools have become more standardized and departmentalized.

After the Civil War the free public high school gradually replaced academies and private schools and won a dominant position in the field of secondary education. Its greatest growth has been in the present century, with the common schools serving as "feeders."

The state university and various colleges founded by religious groups were established before the Civil War. Indiana State University was started at Terre Haute in 1870 to prepare elementary teachers, and Ball State University was opened at Muncie for the same purpose in 1917. Purdue University was organized in 1874 as the result of a Federal land grant act to promote education in agriculture and industry. Since 1860 additional church colleges have been founded. Colleges and universities have gradually added teacher training to their educational programs. College enrollment, fed by high school graduates, increased notably after the turn of the century, and after each of the world wars. In the expanding educational program research has gained greater rec-

ognition. Adult education has received attention in extension courses, library expansion, and club work.

In literary production Indiana has achieved distinction and a high reputation. From Edward Eggleston through James Whitcomb Riley, Charles Major, and Lew Wallace to Gene Stratton Porter, Meredith Nicholson, George Ade, Booth Tarkington, and Theodore Dreiser, Indiana authors held their own with those of other states. In history, John B. Dillon, Jacob P. Dunn, Charles A. Beard, Albert J. Beveridge, John Clark Ridpath, Logan Esarey, Claude Bowers, Albert L. Kohlmeier, R. C. Buley, John D. Barnhart, and others have made important contributions.

The religious composition of the population has become somewhat more diversified since the 1850's. Protestantism has continued to be the leading faith, though Roman Catholicism has become relatively more important than in pioneer days. The leading Protestant denominations of recent decades include the Methodists, Baptists, Christians (Disciples of Christ), Presbyterians, and Lutherans. But the Quakers, Unitarians, Evangelical United Brethren, Episcopalians, and Nazarenes have significant numbers. Various Pentecostal groups have existed, both in rural and urban areas. Greek Orthodox and Hebrew congregations have been established in various places, mainly in urban centers. In addition, members of the Christian Science faith have developed congregations, especially in cities and larger towns. Religious groups have made important contributions to education and civic life. Bigotry and misunderstanding among religious groups have often been evident. Perhaps more important, though at times less noticed, has been a significant increase in co-operation among religious groups generally and important mergers within Protestantism.

Indiana Politics, Civil War to World War I

For about a decade following the Civil War, issues arising from the war dominated politics in Indiana as in the nation generally. During the 1870's, however, new issues, or at least new aspects of old issues, demanded attention. This transition from old to new questions resulted in no sudden or complete break between the old and the new. For instance, issues regarding money and the tariff gained increased prominence during the last three decades of the nineteenth century. Both questions, however, had been apparent in the Civil War era. On the other hand, issues arising from the war and reconstruction continued to receive considerable attention. Thus in 1888, when Benjamin Harrison of Indianapolis was the Republican nominee for the Presi-

dency, major attention was focused on the protective tariff. Nevertheless, even though the Civil War had ended more than three decades earlier, General Harrison's war record was much exalted while Cleveland's lack of military service was noted. Moreover, a Republican victory was expected to produce more liberal pensions for Union soldiers than was that of Cleveland for the Democrats. This mingling of old and new issues is, of course, quite common in politics.

Several factors and circumstances gave rise to "new" political issues starting about the 1870's. In the first place, many voters had become weary of the bitter and seemingly fruitless conflicts of the Civil War era. Second, the severe economic depression of the 1870's transferred much attention from questions about reconstruction to issues concerning money, regulation of railroads, and growth of monopolies. Third, the rapid expansion of railroads, manufacturing, and agriculture aroused much interest and also created issues pertaining to tariffs, money, railroads, "big business," and world markets. Fourthly, there was mounting concern about corruption in government, the abuses of the spoils system, corruption at the polls, and control over government by business interests. Finally, reform elements, third parties, and agitation among laborers and farmers directed attention to these and additional items ranging from shorter hours for wage earners, more taxation of income and less of property, restriction of immigration, and woman's suffrage, to prohibition.

The rivalry between Republicans and Democrats was especially intense during the period between the Civil War and World War I. Two factors help explain this intensity. First, Indiana was a *doubtful* state in numerous local contests as well as in state and national elections, and the margin of victory was often extremely close. Second, Republicans and Democrats alike, within and without Indiana, considered Indiana's vote essential in their efforts to win the Presidency and Congress. From 1850 to 1914 Indiana's electoral vote was always cast for the winning presidential nominee except in 1876. (The rightful winner of this election is still much disputed by historians.) With Indiana important and worth fighting for, both parties sent prominent speakers, campaign literature, party workers, and money to "help" carry it for their side. This situation encouraged the inclusion of Hoosiers on major tickets. As a result, four Hoosiers—Schuyler Colfax, Thomas A. Hendricks, Charles W. Fairbanks, and Thomas R. Marshall—were elected to the Vice-Presidency during this period. Moreover, Benjamin Harrison, mentioned above, served as President from 1889 to 1893. Various other Hoosiers either received the nom-

ination for the Vice-Presidency or were given very favorable consideration for this or the presidential nomination.

Indiana, slow to join the Republican column in the years immediately preceding the Civil War, was quick to return to the Democratic fold thereafter. The Democrats almost elected a governor in 1868 and then did so in 1872 when Thomas A. Hendricks was chosen. Four years later James D. ("Blue Jeans") Williams, another Democrat, was elected. Nevertheless, the outcome was nearly always very close during the remainder of the century as first one party and then the other was successful. In most elections in this period neither party was able to elect all the state officers *and* a majority in both houses of the General Assembly, so that political control was usually divided between Republicans and Democrats. The former, however, obtained a decided edge in the state during the late 1890's and early 1900's, winning with larger than usual margins in 1896, 1900, and 1904. But in 1908 the Democrats elected the governor and held the edge. In 1912 their victory was substantial, though perhaps the outcome was much influenced by the role of the new Progressive party which apparently hurt the Republicans far more than it did the Democrats.

Political issues of increased importance arose in the Progressive era, 1901-1917. During the 1870's Grangers and Greenbackers had contended that business and railroad "interests" were responsible for various economic and political abuses, and such criticism had been augmented by the Populists during the 1890's. William Jennings Bryan's campaign for the Presidency on the Democratic ticket in 1896 and 1900 convinced many voters that such "interests" must be regulated and controlled by government. The Progressives emphasized that government must be rescued from control by the "interests," usually meaning such persons as wealthy manufacturers, merchants, bankers, and owners of railroads. They stressed the need for honesty and integrity in government, and they urged that it be made more responsive to the popular will. The Progressive era resulted in increased regulation of economic life and also in innovations such as the direct election of United States senators by the people and the direct primary. Indiana was slow to change from the convention to the primary method of making nominations, but a primary law was enacted in 1915. A Railroad Commission (later Public Service Commission) was created in 1905, and the State Board of Accounts was established in 1909. World War I cut short the Progressive era which reflected an increased recognition that economic and social life had become more interdependent than previously.

The Progressive movement was bi-partisan. It perhaps made as much rivalry *within* the major parties as it did *between* them. At any rate it did not result in a *separate* political party until 1912 when the short-lived Progressive party was founded. Albert J. Beveridge was Indiana's best known and perhaps most influential leader of the Progressives. He worked within the Republican party until 1912, when he helped establish the Progressive party. Beveridge served in the United States Senate from 1899 to 1911. Among the Democrats, John W. Kern, mayor of Indianapolis, and successor of Beveridge in the Senate, as well as Governors Thomas R. Marshall and Samuel M. Ralston had Progressive leanings.

The United States increased its role in world politics during the two decades from the mid-nineties until World War I, which began in Europe in 1914. Various factors led to this increased participation, but the economic changes already described in this chapter contributed much to this development. By the 1890's the self-sufficiency of pioneer days had been shattered; in its place was a growing economic interdependence based on rapidly increasing trade between Indiana and other states and also between Indiana and other countries. By this decade, Studebaker wagons, Oliver plows, Singer sewing machines—to cite well-known products of South Bend as an example—were being widely distributed over the United States as well as in various other countries. The Spanish-American War in 1898, the proclamation of the Open Door as the basis of American policy in the Orient following that war, President Theodore Roosevelt's role in ending the Russo-Japanese War, the building of the Panama Canal, and the substantial American involvement in Latin American politics are leading examples of increased American participation in world politics in the generation preceding World War I. Hoosier-born John Hay, secretary of state under Presidents McKinley and Roosevelt, played an important part in increasing American participation in world affairs. Moreover, Senator Albert J. Beveridge during his early years in the Senate was perhaps better known within and without Indiana as a champion of increased trade with other countries than for his emerging leadership in the Progressive movement. Beveridge was especially eager to have the United States acquire the Philippines and extend American trade and influence in the Orient.

Indiana Since World War I

American participation in world politics increased from 1914 to 1966. The increased role of the United States in world affairs was highlighted by her military participation in World War I, 1917-18,

and World War II, 1941-45. Participation in these wars, as well as in the Korean War, 1950-53, was very costly in finances and resources. Throughout the period from 1914 to 1966, Hoosiers, as did Americans generally, often exhibited sharp disagreements about what America's role should be in world affairs. Such disagreements were natural among people who rather suddenly found themselves citizens of the most powerful country in the world in a period of extremely difficult international problems.

The United States was reluctant to enter World War I. In Indiana as elsewhere some persons and groups were at first opposed to fighting with Great Britain, France, and other countries against Germany. Within Indiana, for instance, numerous Germans and Irish, who had through the years been the leading immigrant groups from other countries, showed initial reluctance or even opposition to such fighting. As the war continued in Europe, however, the feeling increased that a German victory would be a menace to the United States. When war actually came, Hoosiers generally supported it and participated in rationing, conscription, war loans, and other efforts regarded necessary for success. With victory achieved, however, most citizens apparently supported the refusal of the United States to enter the League of Nations or the World Court. In fact, during the twenties and thirties most Hoosiers were inclined toward limited American participation in world affairs.

The rise of Nazi Germany under Hitler in the thirties and the outbreak of World War II in 1939 once more involved the United States in world conflict. The intense partisanship of the thirties with its pros and cons regarding the New Deal, the vigorous arguments over the nature and extent of American aid to the powers fighting against Germany while the United States was yet officially neutral, and the feeling on the part of some that President Franklin D. Roosevelt's policies helped produce the war were factors which contributed to much partisan bickering in the years preceding American entrance into the war. With the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor in December, 1941, however, support of the war was general and sustained in spite of considerable grumbling and muffled discontent. In World War II rationing, conscription, loans, and taxes exceeded similar measures for World War I. As the second World War neared its end, the United States joined with other countries in establishing the United Nations. A majority of Hoosiers probably favored American membership in the United Nations, but perhaps with less enthusiasm than Americans generally.

Indiana's military role in World War II was much greater than that in World War I. In the first war Indiana supplied about 118,000 men and women to the armed forces of whom about 3,370 gave their lives. In World War II approximately 338,000 men and women served, of whom over 10,000 lost their lives. In both wars the American homeland was spared from enemy attack. But the advent of the nuclear age in 1945, though it doubtless hastened the conclusion of the war, ushered in an era in which Americans immediately became concerned that their homeland would not be so spared in the event of another world war. This concern remained with them into the sixties, and it was also learned that "cold war" could be as costly in money and resources as "hot war" had been. Under such circumstances world affairs had great and continuous impact on domestic politics during the 1950's and 1960's.

Meanwhile, important developments also occurred in domestic politics during this period. From World War I into the 1960's Indiana exhibited a strong tendency toward caution and conservatism with regard to political innovations. It also exhibited a preference for Republicans over Democrats, especially in presidential elections, which was in marked contrast to the nip and tuck situation which existed between the Civil War and World War I. The tendency to favor Republicans, however, had shown signs of becoming a trend in the years from 1896 to 1914. At any rate, in twelve presidential and gubernatorial elections from 1916 through 1964, Indiana voted ten times for Republican presidential nominees and seven times elected Republican governors. This preference for Republicans made Indiana much less a doubtful state than it had been. Moreover, Indiana voted for the losing presidential candidate five times during the period from 1916 through 1964 as against only once between the Civil War and 1912.

World War I abruptly ended the Progressive movement and ushered in a period of Republican domination which continued until 1933. Republican governors who served during this period were James P. Goodrich, Warren T. McCray, Emmett F. Branch, Ed Jackson, and Harry G. Leslie. The period was generally one of prosperity until the Panic of 1929, though farmers were in difficult straits following World War I. Reform and regulation of business were much less emphasized than formerly. Considerable progress was made in the building of state highways; an excellent system of state parks was developed; and state support of public education increased at all levels. A German immigrant, Richard Lieber, was the principal architect of the state park

system Under his direction Indiana became a recognized leader among the states in park development.

World War I was also followed by a nativist movement spearheaded by the Ku Klux Klan. This secret order, especially prominent in Indiana, used intimidation, corrupt politics, and at times violence in its criticism of and opposition to Roman Catholics, Negroes, Jews, and "things foreign." The Klan received considerable support from Protestant ministers. It should, however, be noted that the Klan flourished at a time when Indiana was completing its transition from a rural and agrarian state to an urban and industrial commonwealth. This transition quite likely encouraged many Hoosiers, especially those from rural families, to regard Catholics, Jews, Negroes, and new immigrants—most of whom were urban residents associated in one way or another with manufacturing or business—as dangerous rivals. Moreover, the low educational and living standards among many persons in such groups posed very real social, economic, and political problems at a time when many farmers and laborers felt the pinch of postwar adjustments. The Klan probably reached the peak of its power under Governor Ed Jackson. Most of its members were doubtless Protestants and Republicans, but a very large majority of both Protestants and Republicans refused to join it.

During the 1930's important political changes occurred in Indiana. The depression which began in 1929 brought economic and political discontent which resulted in the election of Franklin D. Roosevelt as President and of Paul V. McNutt as governor in 1932. The Roosevelt administration quickly began a fast-moving and precedent-breaking program known as the New Deal. This program substantially increased government regulation of economic life, gave relief to millions who were unemployed, offered loans to farmers and home-owners threatened with mortgage foreclosures, provided insurance for bank deposits, began a social security program, enacted legislation favorable to labor and labor unions, made payments to farmers to restrict output, and developed rural electrification.

The New Deal greatly extended the role of the Federal government over the economic life of the country. Moreover, it gave the government increased responsibility in matters pertaining to individual citizens. The New Deal required heavy expenditures which resulted in a rapid and large increase in the Federal debt. Most of the basic part of the New Deal came during Roosevelt's first administration, but it was added to and modified during his second term, 1937-41. Indiana Republicans staunchly opposed most of the New Deal with vigor during

the thirties. For the most part, however, Governor McNutt and his successor, M. Clifford Townsend, supported and co-operated with it.

Governor McNutt introduced important changes during his term as governor, 1933-37. A gross income tax was established in 1933 to relieve the tax burden on property and to add revenue for the operation of state government. McNutt placed much emphasis on education, and state support thereof was substantially increased. The administration of state government was centralized in the hands of the governor, but some of this legislation proved to be of limited consequence. The gross income tax, however, remained and soon became a very important source of state revenue. The end of prohibition in 1933 resulted in legislation to regulate the liquor traffic, but spoils politics was rampant in its administration. A modern state police force was established under Governor McNutt.

Much of the domestic legislation of the thirties has continued in effect. However, important parts of the New Deal program, such as social security, insurance of bank deposits, mortgages to home owners, and rural electrification are generally supported by Republicans as well as Democrats. The gross income tax not only remained but was increased. American participation in World War II diverted major attention from domestic issues to problems connected with winning the war. Henry F. Schricker's election as governor in 1940 gave Indiana a Democratic chief executive but one who was not an ardent New Dealer.

Ralph F. Gates served as governor, 1945-49; Schricker again, 1949-53; George N. Craig, 1953-57; Harold W. Handley, 1957-61; Matthew E. Welsh, 1961-65. Gates, Craig, and Handley were Republicans. Since the forties the state has continued to increase its support of education at all levels, improved its care of the mentally ill, and improved the highway system. Roger D. Branigin, a Democrat, was inaugurated as governor in January, 1965.

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* An asterisk before a title indicates it is suitable for junior high readers.

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APPENDIX¹

TERRITORIAL GOVERNORS

William Henry Harrison, 1800-12. Jeffersonian Republican.
John Gibson (acting governor), 1812-13. Jeffersonian Republican.
Thomas Posey, 1813-16. Jeffersonian Republican.

GOVERNORS

Jonathan Jennings, Charlestown, 1816-22. Jeffersonian Republican.
Ratliff Boon, Boonville, 1822. Jeffersonian Republican.
William Hendricks, Madison, 1822-25. Jeffersonian Republican.
James Brown Ray, Brookville, 1825-31. Independent.
Noah Noble, Indianapolis, 1831-37. National Republican, Whig.
David Wallace, Covington, 1837-40. Whig.
Samuel Bigger, Rushville, 1840-43. Whig.
James Whitcomb, Bloomington, 1843-48. Democrat.
Paris C. Dunning, Bloomington, 1848-1849. Democrat.
Joseph A. Wright, Rockville, 1849-57. Democrat.
Ashbel P. Willard, New Albany, 1857-60. Died October 3, 1860. Democrat.
Abram A. Hammond, Indianapolis, 1860-61. Democrat.
Henry S. Lane, Crawfordsville, 1861. Republican.
Oliver P. Morton, Centerville, 1861-67. Republican.
Conrad Baker, Evansville, 1867-73. Republican.
Thomas A. Hendricks, Shelbyville, 1873-77. Democrat.
James D. Williams, Knox County, 1877-80. Died Nov. 20, 1880.
Democrat.
Isaac P. Gray, Union City, 1880-81, 1885-89. Democrat.
Albert G. Porter, Indianapolis, 1881-85. Republican.
Alvin P. Hovey, Mount Vernon, 1889-91. Died Nov. 23, 1891.
Republican.
Ira J. Chase, Danville, 1891-93. Republican.
Claude Matthews, Vermillion County, 1893-97. Democrat.
James A. Mount, Montgomery County, 1897-1901. Republican.
Winfield T. Durbin, Anderson, 1901-05. Republican.
J. Frank Hanly, Warren County, 1905-09. Republican.
Thomas R. Marshall, Columbia City, 1909-13. Democrat.
Samuel M. Ralston, Lebanon, 1913-17. Democrat.
James P. Goodrich, Winchester, 1917-21. Republican.
Warren T. McCray, Kentland, 1921-24. Resigned April 29, 1924.
Republican.
Emmet F. Branch, Martinsville, 1924-25. Republican.
Ed Jackson, Indianapolis, 1925-29. Republican.

¹ Material in the Appendix has been compiled by Dorothy Riker, editor of the Historical Bureau.

Harry G. Leslie, Lafayette, 1929-33. Republican.
 Paul V. McNutt, Bloomington, 1933-37. Democrat.
 M. Clifford Townsend, Grant County, 1937-41. Democrat.
 Henry F. Schricker, Knox, 1941-45. Democrat.
 Ralph F. Gates, Columbia City, 1945-49. Republican.
 Henry F. Schricker, Knox, 1949-53. Democrat.
 George Craig, Brazil, 1953-57. Republican.
 Harold W. Handley, La Porte, 1957-61. Republican.
 Matthew E. Welsh, Vincennes, 1961-65. Democrat.
 Roger D. Branigin, Lafayette, 1965-. Democrat.

UNITED STATES SENATORS

[Addresses are those given in Congressional Directory]

James Noble, Brookville, 1816-31. Died February 26, 1831. Jeffersonian Republican.
 Waller Taylor, Vincennes, 1816-25. Jeffersonian Republican.
 William Hendricks, Madison, 1825-37. Democratic Republican, Democrat.
 Robert Hanna, Indianapolis, 1831. Democratic Republican.
 John Tipton, Logansport, 1832-39. Democratic Republican.
 Oliver H. Smith, Connersville, 1837-43. Whig.
 Albert S. White, Lafayette, 1839-45. Whig.
 Edward A. Hannegan, Covington, 1843-49. Democrat.
 Jesse D. Bright, Madison, 1845-62. Expelled February 5, 1862. Democrat.
 James Whitcomb, Indianapolis, 1849-52. Died October 4, 1852. Democrat.
 Charles W. Cathcart, La Porte, 1852-53. Democrat.
 John Pettit, Lafayette, 1853-55. Democrat.
 Graham N. Fitch, Logansport, 1857-61. Elected for term beginning March 4, 1855, but not seated until February 9, 1857. Democrat.
 Joseph A. Wright, Indianapolis, 1862-63. Union.
 David Turpie, Indianapolis, 1863, 1887-99. Democrat.
 Henry S. Lane, Crawfordsville, 1861-67. Republican.
 Thomas A. Hendricks, Indianapolis, 1863-69. Democrat.
 Oliver P. Morton, Indianapolis, 1867-77. Died November 1, 1877. Republican.
 Daniel D. Pratt, Logansport, 1869-75. Republican.
 Joseph E. McDonald, Indianapolis, 1875-81. Democrat.
 Daniel W. Voorhees, Terre Haute, 1877-97. Democrat.
 Benjamin Harrison, Indianapolis, 1881-87. Republican.
 Charles W. Fairbanks, Indianapolis, 1897-1905. Republican.
 Albert J. Beveridge, Indianapolis, 1899-1911. Republican.
 James A. Hemenway, Boonville, 1905-09. Republican.
 Benjamin F. Shively, South Bend, 1909-16. Died March 14, 1916. Democrat.
 John W. Kern, Indianapolis, 1911-17. Democrat.

Thomas Taggart, French Lick, 1916. Democrat.
 James E. Watson, Rushville, 1916-33. Republican.
 Harry S. New, Indianapolis, 1917-23. Republican.
 Samuel M. Ralston, Indianapolis, 1923-25. Died October 14, 1925.
 Democrat.
 Arthur R. Robinson, Indianapolis, 1925-35. Republican.
 Frederick Van Nuys, Indianapolis, 1933-44. Died February 25, 1944.
 Democrat.
 Sherman Minton, New Albany, 1935-41. Democrat.
 Raymond E. Willis, Angola, 1941-47. Republican.
 Samuel D. Jackson, Fort Wayne, 1944. Democrat.
 William E. Jenner, Bedford, 1944-45, 1947-59. Republican.
 Homer E. Capehart, Washington, 1945-63. Republican.
 Vance Hartke, Evansville, 1959-. Democrat.
 Birch E. Bayh, Jr., Terre Haute, 1963-. Democrat.

INDIANA COUNTIES

County	Year Organized	Population 1960	County Seat
Adams	1836	24,643	Decatur
Allen	1824	232,196	Fort Wayne
Bartholomew	1821	48,198	Columbus
Benton	1840	11,912	Fowler
Blackford	1839	14,792	Hartford City
Boone	1830	27,543	Lebanon
Brown	1836	7,024	Nashville
Carroll	1828	16,934	Delphi
Cass	1828	40,931	Logansport
Clark	1801	62,795	Jeffersonville
Clay	1825	24,207	Brazil
Clinton	1830	30,765	Frankfort
Crawford	1818	8,379	English
Daviess	1817	26,636	Washington
Dearborn	1803	28,674	Lawrenceburg
Decatur	1822	20,019	Greensburg
DeKalb	1837	28,271	Auburn
Delaware	1827	110,938	Muncie
Dubois	1818	27,463	Jasper
Elkhart	1830	106,790	Goshen
Fayette	1819	24,454	Connersville
Floyd	1819	51,397	New Albany
Fountain	1826	18,706	Covington
Franklin	1811	17,015	Brookville
Fulton	1836	16,957	Rochester
Gibson	1813	29,949	Princeton
Grant	1831	75,741	Marion

INDIANA COUNTIES—Continued

County	Year Organized	Population 1960	County Seat
Greene	1821	26,327	Bloomfield
Hamilton	1823	40,132	Noblesville
Hancock	1828	26,665	Greenfield
Harrison	1808	19,207	Corydon
Hendricks	1824	40,896	Danville
Henry	1822	48,899	New Castle
Howard	1844	69,509	Kokomo
Huntington	1834	33,814	Huntington
Jackson	1816	30,556	Brownstown
Jasper	1838	18,842	Rensselaer
Jay	1836	22,572	Portland
Jefferson	1811	24,061	Madison
Jennings	1817	17,267	Vernon
Johnson	1823	43,704	Franklin
Knox	1790	41,561	Vincennes
Kosciusko	1836	40,373	Warsaw
La Grange	1832	17,380	La Grange
Lake	1837	513,269	Crown Point
La Porte	1832	95,111	La Porte
Lawrence	1818	36,564	Bedford
Madison	1823	125,819	Anderson
Marion	1822	697,567	Indianapolis
Marshall	1836	32,443	Plymouth
Martin	1820	10,608	Shoals
Miami	1834	38,000	Peru
Monroe	1818	59,225	Bloomington
Montgomery	1823	32,089	Crawfordsville
Morgan	1822	33,875	Martinsville
Newton	1860	11,502	Kentland
Noble	1836	28,162	Albion
Ohio	1844	4,165	Rising Sun
Orange	1816	16,877	Paoli
Owen	1819	11,400	Spencer
Parke	1821	14,804	Rockville
Perry	1814	17,232	Cannelton
Pike	1817	12,797	Petersburg
Porter	1836	60,279	Valparaiso
Posey	1814	19,214	Mount Vernon
Pulaski	1839	12,837	Winamac
Putnam	1822	24,927	Greencastle
Randolph	1818	28,434	Winchester
Ripley	1818	20,641	Versailles

INDIANA COUNTIES—Continued

County	Year Organized	Population 1960	County Seat
Rush	1822	20,393	Rushville
St. Joseph	1830	238,614	South Bend
Scott	1820	14,643	Scottsburg
Shelby	1822	34,093	Shelbyville
Spencer	1818	16,074	Rockport
Starke	1850	17,911	Knox
Steuben	1837	17,184	Angola
Sullivan	1817	21,721	Sullivan
Switzerland	1814	7,092	Vevay
Tippecanoe	1826	89,122	Lafayette
Tipton	1844	15,856	Tipton
Union	1821	6,457	Liberty
Vanderburgh	1818	165,794	Evansville
Vermillion	1824	17,683	Newport
Vigo	1818	108,458	Terre Haute
Wabash	1835	32,605	Wabash
Warren	1827	8,545	Williamsport
Warrick	1813	23,577	Boonville
Washington	1814	17,819	Salem
Wayne	1811	74,039	Richmond
Wells	1837	21,220	Bluffton
White	1834	19,709	Monticello
Whitley	1838	20,954	Columbia City

POPULATION OF INDIANA

1800—2,517	1880—1,978,301
1810—24,520	1890—2,192,404
1815—63,897	1900—2,516,462
1820—147,178	1910—2,700,876
1830—343,031	1920—2,930,390
1840—685,866	1930—3,238,503
1850—988,416	1940—3,427,796
1860—1,350,428	1950—3,934,224
1870—1,680,637	1960—4,662,498

PERCENTAGE OF URBAN AND RURAL POPULATION

Year	Urban	Rural	Year	Urban	Rural
1890	26.9	73.1	1930	55.5	44.5
1900	34.3	65.7	1940	55.1	44.9
1910	42.4	57.6	1950	56.4	43.6
1920	50.6	49.4	1960	62.4	37.6

POPULATION OF LEADING INDIANA CITIES

1840
 New Albany—4,226
 Madison—3,798
 Indianapolis—2,692
 Richmond—2,070

1850
 New Albany—8,181
 Indianapolis—8,091
 Madison—8,012
 Terre Haute—4,051
 Evansville—3,235

1860
 Indianapolis—18,611
 New Albany—12,647
 Evansville—11,484
 Terre Haute—8,594
 Madison—8,130

1870
 Indianapolis—48,244
 Evansville—21,830
 Fort Wayne—17,718
 Terre Haute—16,103
 New Albany—15,396

1880
 Indianapolis—75,056
 Evansville—29,280
 Fort Wayne—26,880
 Terre Haute—26,042
 New Albany—16,423

1890
 Indianapolis—105,436
 Evansville—50,756
 Fort Wayne—35,393
 Terre Haute—30,217
 South Bend—21,819

1900
 Indianapolis—169,164
 Evansville—59,007

Fort Wayne—45,115
 Terre Haute—36,673
 South Bend—35,999

1910
 Indianapolis—233,650
 Evansville—69,647
 Fort Wayne—63,933
 Terre Haute—58,157
 South Bend—53,684

1920
 Indianapolis—314,194
 Fort Wayne—86,549
 Evansville—85,264
 South Bend—70,983
 Terre Haute—66,083

1930
 Indianapolis—364,161
 Fort Wayne—114,946
 South Bend—104,193
 Evansville—102,249
 Gary—100,426

1940
 Indianapolis—386,972
 Fort Wayne—118,410
 Gary—111,719
 South Bend—101,268
 Evansville—97,062

1950
 Indianapolis—427,173
 Gary—133,911
 Fort Wayne—133,607
 Evansville—128,636
 South Bend—115,911

1960
 Indianapolis—476,258
 Gary—178,320
 Fort Wayne—161,776
 Evansville—141,543
 South Bend—132,445

LEADING INDUSTRIES LISTED ACCORDING TO VALUE OF PRODUCTS

1870

Flouring and grist mill products
Lumber, planed
Woolen goods
Carriages and wagons
Furniture
Carpentering and building
Forged and rolled iron
Pork packing
Boots and shoes
Iron castings

1880

Flouring and grist mill products
Slaughtering and meat packing
Lumber, sawed
Foundry and machine shop products
Street and railroad cars and repairs
Iron and steel products
Agricultural implements
Carriages and wagons
Furniture
Cooperage

1890

Flouring and grist mill products
Slaughtering and meat packing
Lumber and other mill products
Foundry and machine shop products
Carriages and wagons
Cars and general shop construction
and repairs by steam railroad
companies
Cars, steam railroad, not including
operation of railroad companies
Carpentering
Liquors, distilled
Agricultural implements

1900

Slaughtering and meat packing
Flouring and grist mill products
Lumber and timber products
Liquors

Iron and steel

Foundry and machine shop products
Glass
Carriages and wagons
Cars and general shop construction
and repairs by steam railroad
companies
Cars, steam railroad, not including
operation of railroad companies

1910

Slaughtering and meat packing
Flouring and grist mill products
Foundry and machine shop products
Iron and steel, steel works and roll-
ing mills
Liquors, distilled
Automobiles, including bodies and
parts
Lumber and timber products
Carriages and wagons
Furniture and refrigerators
Cars and general shop construction
and repairs by steam railroad
companies

1920

Iron and steel, steel works and roll-
ing mills
Foundry and machine shop products
Cars and general shop construction
and repairs by steam railroad
companies
Automobile bodies and parts
Automobiles
Furniture
Electrical machinery, apparatus and
supplies
Cars, steam railroad, not including
operation of railroad companies
Agricultural implements
Glass

1930
 Iron and steel, steel works and rolling mills
 Motor vehicles, excluding motorcycles
 Foundry and machine shop products
 Electrical machinery, apparatus and supplies
 Meat packing
 Furniture, including store and office fixtures
 Motor vehicle bodies and parts
 Iron and steel, blast furnaces
 Cars, electric and steam railroad, not built in railroad repair shops
 Cars and general construction and repairs, steam railroad repair shops

1940
 Steel works and rolling mills
 Motor vehicles, bodies, parts, and accessories
 Petroleum refining
 Meat packing, wholesale
 Electrical machinery
 Chemicals and allied products
 Refrigerators, refrigeration machinery and equipment, air conditioning units

Food and kindred products
 Blast furnace products
 Oven coke and coke oven byproducts

1947
 Transportation equipment
 Primary metal products
 Machinery, except electrical
 Motor vehicles and equipment
 Blast furnaces and steel mills
 Electrical machinery
 Chemicals and products
 Fabricated metal products
 Petroleum and coal products
 Drugs and medicines

1958
 Primary metal products
 Transportation equipment
 Blast furnaces and steel mills
 Electrical machinery
 Food and kindred products
 Chemicals and products
 Machinery, except electrical
 Fabricated metal products
 Communications equipment
 Stone, clay and glass products
 Pharmaceutical products

SOME AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS, 1859-1959

Livestock on farms	1859	1900	1959
Horses, mules, asses	301,148	759,849	52,928
Cattle	757,471	1,256,369	1,973,634
Sheep	745,951	1,010,648	557,019
Hogs	2,508,695	3,763,389	5,356,518
Crop production			
Wheat, bu.	12,195,594	34,986,280	30,941,720
Corn, bu.	37,261,622	178,967,070	308,043,808
Oats, bu.	2,625,293	34,565,070	33,428,856
Tobacco, lbs.	1,406,174	6,882,470	10,689,050
Soy beans, bu.			58,440,247

NOTICE TO TEACHERS

The Indiana Historical Bureau has available for use in the schools two series of illustrated historical leaflets. The first is written in the fourth-grade vocabulary. Its titles include :

1. *The First People in Indiana*
2. *The French in Indiana*
3. *Pioneer Living in Indiana*
4. *Travel in Indiana Long Ago*
5. *Good Times of Young Pioneers*

The second series, "Indiana Heroes for Young Hoosiers," contains three titles :

1. *George Rogers Clark*
2. *Chief Little Turtle*
3. *William Henry Harrison*

The Historical Bureau also has available a folder, in color, of the "State Emblems"—the state seal, banner, tree, flower, and bird, and brief illustrated articles on "The Conestoga Wagon," and "The Pennsylvania Rifle."

The above items are supplied free of charge to schools, except for the payment of postage. Requests must come from teachers or administrators. Individual requests from pupils can not be filled.

The Historical Bureau sponsors and encourages the Indiana Junior Historical Society, a federation of high school history clubs. Organization of new clubs will be aided.

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